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THE HISTORY AND LITERATURE

OF THE

TUDOR PERIOD

(TO THE ACCESSION OF JAMES VI. OF SCOTLAND, 1603).

BY

J. DAVIES,

UNIVERSITY OF LONDON,

AUTHOR OF "MANUALS" OF GENESIS, EXODUS, JOSHUA, JUDGES, I. SAMUEL,
MARK, LUKE, ACTS OF THE APOSTLES, THE CHURCH CATECHISM, &c.



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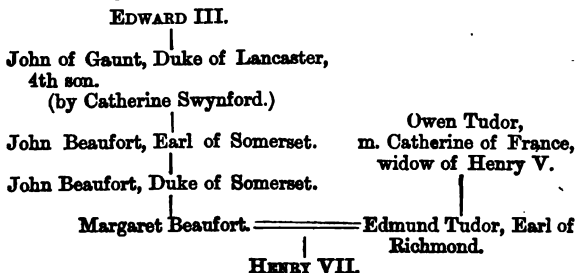
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HISTORY OF THE TUDOR PERIOD, (1485—1603).

HENRY VII.

Dates of Birth, Accession, and Death.—1456, (in Pembroke Castle;— Aug. 22, 1485;— April 21, 1509, (in Richmond Palace,—of consumption, brought on by repeated attacks of gout), in his 53rd year. Buried at Westminster, in the chapel bearing his name, and which he had built. Reigned $23\frac{1}{2}$ years.

Descent.—Son of Edmund Tudor, Earl of Richmond, and Margaret Beaufort, daughter of John Beaufort, Duke of Somerset. On his mother's side he was a Lancastrian, as shown by the following table of his pedigree :—



His father dying in the same year that Henry was born, he became Earl of Richmond, and was placed under the guardianship of his paternal uncle, Jasper, then Earl of Pembroke. On Ed. IV.'s accession Jasper left the country, and Henry was placed in the charge of Sir Wm.

Herbert. During the time of Henry VI.'s restoration he was received at Court, and went to Eton. After the battle of Tewkesbury, he fled, with Jasper, and took refuge in Brittany, where he remained, handsomely supported by Duke Francis II., till 1484, when, in consequence of an attempt made by Rd. III. to gain possession of his person, he sought shelter in France, whence he conducted his expedition against Richard.

Married Elizabeth, eldest daughter and heiress of Ed. IV. (d. 1503),—thus *uniting the rival Houses of Lancaster and York*. By the Treaty of Pecquigny, between her father and Louis XI., she had been betrothed to the Dauphin, Charles ; but Louis broke the contract. At her father's death, she and her mother took sanctuary in Westminster, and there remained until starved into surrender after Buckingham's revolt. She was then placed under the charge of Queen Anne, and a marriage was arranged between her and Edward, Prince of Wales, who, however, died almost directly afterwards. On Anne's death Rd. proposed to marry Elizabeth, but, finding public opinion dead-set against the union, placed her, with her cousin Edward, Earl of Warwick, in close custody, in which she remained till after Henry's victory at Bosworth.

Though his marriage with Elizabeth was *the* condition on which he was invited to dethrone Rd., and reign in his stead, Henry delayed their union until the succession was vested in himself and heirs, by Parliament,—lest it should be considered that there were doubts of his individual claim, and that his title was derived from his marriage alone.

The enthusiasm displayed on the occasion of the marriage gave Henry great umbrage, since he regarded it as virtually an expression of public opinion in favour of the House of York. In consequence, he postponed Elizabeth's coronation until after Simnel's rebellion, when, to conciliate the Yorkists, whose disaffection had been alarmingly manifested in that rising, and had proceeded mainly from his treatment of the Queen, he allowed the ceremony to be performed.

It is sometimes stated that Henry's suspicions of the Yorkists extended to his wife, and caused dislike and coldness on his part towards her ; but the balance of

evidence is in favour of their wedded life having been quietly happy.

Issue.—Arthur, (d. 1502),—a gentle and promising prince.

In 1501, Arthur, then aged 16, was married to Catherine of Arragon, daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella, of Castile and Arragon: she brought a dowry of 200,000 ducats.

Margaret,—m. 1. Jas. IV., of Scotland.

2. Archibald Douglas, Earl of Angus.

From the intermarriage of the issue of these two unions sprang the English House of Stuart.

3. Henry Stuart, Lord Methven.

Henry VIII.—As Ferdinand wished to preserve Henry's alliance, as a counterpoise against France, and Henry did not relish the idea of refunding Catherine's dowry, it was mutually agreed by the parents that she should be contracted to Prince Henry. A special dispensation having been obtained from Pope Julius II., they were betrothed 1504, Hy. being then 13 years old.

Mary,—m. 1. Louis XII. of France.

2. Chas. Brandon, Duke of Suffolk. *From this marriage sprang Lady Jane Grey.*

Three other children, who died in infancy.

Claim to the Throne.—*Not good*,—but made so by Parliament.

Henry based his title on his Lancastrian descent. This was unsound, for—

1. The House of Lancaster never had any just claim to the throne.

2. Even if the succession lay in the House of Lancaster, Henry was debarred from the crown. John of Gaunt's children by Catherine Swynford were illegitimate. They were legitimatized under Rd. II., and the Act was confirmed by Hy. IV., but with the express stipulation that they and their issue *should be excluded from the succession.*

The rightful heir was Elizabeth, eldest daughter of Ed. IV., who, by the death of her two brothers in the Tower, had become the nearest representative of the House of York, in which the succession justly lay.

Parliament, on meeting, pronounced no opinion as to

the validity of his claim, but, relying upon Henry's promise to marry Elizabeth, enacted that the inheritance of the Crown should "be, rest, remain, and abide" in Henry, and his lawful heirs.

He then procured from the Pope a ratification of his title.

Character.—Cool, cautious, sagacious, and reserved. Avarice was his dominant passion, and to its gratification he sacrificed the ties of gratitude and friendship, the national honour, and the welfare of his people. His early hardships did much, doubtless, to form and strengthen this miserly habit. His bitter hostility to the Yorkists, and stern treatment of them, are to be attributed less to cruelty of disposition, than to inherited antipathy,—a determination to effectually crush the House,—and a desire to confiscate and appropriate their possessions.

EVENTS LEADING TO HENRY'S SUCCESSION.

At Edward IV.'s death he left two sons,—Edward V., and the Duke of York.

Their uncle, Richard, Duke of Gloucester, assumed the title of *Protector*, and took steps to secure the crown for himself. He got rid of the nobles friendly to the young King,—caused him and his brother to be declared illegitimate,—and had himself proclaimed King, as Richard III. He then caused Edward V. and his brother to be murdered. At this time, Henry, (then Earl of Richmond), was living abroad.

General dislike was felt towards Richard III., and a plot was formed, incited by Morton, a zealous Lancastrian, to place Henry on the throne, on condition of his marrying Elizabeth of York.

Henry accepted the offer,—landed at Milford,—met Richard at *Bosworth*,—and there gained a complete victory, Richard being killed on the field.

WAR.

WITH FRANCE.—France had long wished to annex Brittany, the last of its great fiefs remaining independent, and advantage was taken of its Duke, Francis II.'s altering the Duke of Orleans, an enemy to the French

Court, to invade the country with the design of conquering it.

Both Chas. VIII., and Francis, had claims upon Hy., since he had been a refugee in both countries,—and both appealed to him for assistance. He obtained a grant from Parliament to meet expenses, should he decide on espousing either side; but made no sign of action till the death, in 1488, of Francis, who left Brittany to his daughter Anne.

Anne, hard-pressed by Chas., besought Henry's aid. He sent over 6,000 troops, on condition that Anne should pay for their equipment, and not marry without his consent. At the same time, he agreed privately with Chas. that, in consideration of a sum of money, they should remain inactive. Accordingly, after an absence of six months, they returned, without having accomplished anything.

Meanwhile Anne was, with Hy.'s consent, betrothed, and married by proxy, to Maximilian, Emperor of Germany.

On hearing of this, Chas. invaded Brittany in person,—besieged Anne in Rennes,—and gave her the choice of becoming his captive, or his wife: she chose the latter alternative,—they were married, 1491,—and Brittany was peaceably annexed to France.

Henry, seeing his way clear to making a good market of the affair, professed to be highly indignant at Chas.'s treatment of him, and declared war against France. Parliament granted him large supplies, which he supplemented by exacting *Benevolences*, (though these had been abolished by Rd. III.)

In the autumn of 1492 he landed at Calais with 26,000 men, and then marched to Boulogne, and besieged it.

Meanwhile he had sent agents to Chas. to treat for peace,—his demands being entirely monetary. Chas., anxious to secure settled possession of Brittany, and eager to invade Italy, closed with the offer, and the monarchs signed the

Treaty of Etaples, 1492.

Terms:—

1. Peace and alliance between England and France.
2. Chas. to pay Hy. £142,000, in half-yearly instal-

ments of 25,000 crowns,—partly to cover the expenses Hy. had incurred in the war, and partly as arrears of the pension secured to Ed. IV. by the *Treaty of Pecquigny*.

Hy. returned with his troops in November, having “made profit upon his subjects for the war; and upon his enemies for the peace.”

With the exception of this one miserable farce, England was exempt from war during this reign, owing to the cautious and avaricious character of Hy., which led him to prefer profitable negotiation, to strife of doubtful issue.

PLOTS AND REBELLIONS.

1. Lovel's Insurrection, 1486.—While Henry was in the course of a progress through the kingdom, Lord Lovel, late Chamberlain to Rd. III., and the two Staffords, cousins of the Duke of Buckingham, who were amongst those attainted at Hy.'s accession, raised a Yorkist insurrection. The insurgents planned the seizure of Hy. on his way from Pontefract to York; but the King was forewarned. He sent his uncle Jasper, (now Duke of Bedford), against the rebels, and issued a proclamation offering pardon to all who would lay down their arms. The leaders, in consequence, found themselves almost deserted. Lovel escaped to Flanders, to the Court of Margaret, Duchess-dowager of Charles the Bold of Burgundy, and sister of Ed. IV. The two Staffords took sanctuary, whence the elder was dragged, and executed.

2. Lambert Simnel's Rebellion, 1487.—Taking advantage of the widely-spread disaffection caused by Hy.'s treatment of the Yorkists, and of a report that the Earl of Warwick had escaped, Richard Simon, an Oxford priest, instigated a pupil of his, Lambert Simnel, a baker's son, aged 15, of precocious intelligence and engaging manners, to personate the Earl, and head a rebellion against Henry.

It was resolved to make the first attempt in Ireland, where the Yorkist cause was popular,—both Rd., Duke of York, and the Duke of Clarence, having ruled that country. Simon and Simnel landed in Dublin, and were welcomed by the Earl of Kildare, the Viceroy,—nearly all

the Pale declared in Simnel's favor, and he was crowned in Dublin Cathedral, under the title of Ed. VI.

In England the insurrection found little favour, since Henry proved the falsity of Simnel's pretension by causing the true Warwick to be publicly exhibited in London. At the same time, and for no apparent cause, he stripped his mother-in-law, the Queen-dowager of Ed. IV., of her possessions, and caused her to be confined in the Convent of Bermondsey, where she died.

John de la Pole, Earl of Lincoln, (son of John de la Pole, Duke of Suffolk, and Elizabeth, eldest sister of Ed. IV.), whom Rd. III. had declared heir to the throne, but who had made submission to Henry, now deserted the King, and fled to Flanders to Margaret, who, at the solicitation of De la Pole and Lovel, joined the conspiracy. She hired 2,000 German troops, and sent them under command of Martin Schwartz, Lincoln, and Lovel, to Ireland.

On their arrival, it was determined to invade England. Simnel, with about 8,000 followers, (composed of English of the Pale, wild Irish, and Germans), landed at Furness, in Lancashire, and marched southwards through Yorkshire, without much augmenting his strength. Henry hastily assembled his forces at Kenilworth, his Queen's palace, where he then was. The armies met at

Stoke, (near Newark, Notts.)—Royal forces victorious.

Royalist Commander,—Earl of Oxford.

Insurgent Commanders,—Schwartz, Lincoln, and Lovel.

Lincoln, Schwartz, and 4,000 insurgents were killed. Lovel escaped, but was never heard of more: a skeleton discovered in an underground chamber of the seat of the Lovel family, towards the close of the 17th century, is supposed to have been his. Simon and Simnel were taken: the former, being a priest, was not tried, but imprisoned for life; while Hy. showed his contempt for Simnel and his claim by making him a scullion in the Royal kitchen, from which post he rose to that of falconer. The King, with his usual sharp look-out for the main chance, took care that all the insurgents who possessed property should be attainted.

The *object of this plot* was to depose Hy., and place a Yorkist on the throne; but it is not clear who was intended for the honour. It seems most probable, however,

that the leaders of the movement meant to use Simnel as their tool until they had ensured the success of their cause, and that then they would have made the *real* Warwick King, or, in case of his being put to death by Hy. before they could release him, would have bestowed the crown on the Earl of Lincoln.

3. Insurrection in the North, 1488.—Parliament granted Hy. a subsidy to provide for contingent war with France. The northern counties refused to pay their share,—slew the Earl of Northumberland, who endeavoured to exact it,—and, headed by Sir John Egremont and John à Chambre, rose in rebellion. They were speedily scattered by the Earl of Surrey,—à Chambre was taken, and executed,—Egremont escaped to Flanders to Margaret's court.

4. Perkin Warbeck's Rebellion, 1492–1497.—Taking advantage of the war between Hy. and Charles VIII. of France, and of a report current in England that Rd., Duke of York, brother of Ed. V., had not been murdered, but was still alive, the enemies of Hy. abroad sought some one to personate Rd., and to head a new Yorkist insurrection. They fixed upon a youth named Perkin Warbeck, son of a Jew at Tournay, but born in London in Ed. IV.'s reign. He had been a page in an exile Yorkist family at Lisbon, but was remarkable for his princely bearing and high intelligence.

The predilections of the Irish people being still strongly White Rose, Warbeck decided on making his first appearance amongst them.

In 1492 he landed at Cork,—assumed the name of *Richard Plantagenet*,—and found considerable support amongst all classes. Before, however, he had time to organize any plans, Chas. VIII., temporarily espousing Perkin's cause, with a view of obtaining advantageous terms from Hy., with whom he was in treaty for peace, sent for the pretender to Paris, received him as the Duke of York, and gave him a mansion, a pension, and a body-guard. When the *Treaty of Etaples* was concluded, Chas., having no further need of him, ordered Warbeck to quit France.

In 1493 Perkin retired to the Duchess of Burgundy, in Flanders. She professed to identify him, by his likeness

to his father, as her nephew Richard,—bestowed on him the title of the "*White Rose of England*,"—and maintained him in a position becoming his assumed rank.

The Yorkists in England sent over Sir Robert Clifford to report upon Warbeck's pretension. His inquiries led him to assure his employers that Perkin's claim was genuine. In consequence, a strong feeling in his favour sprang up in England,—a large number of men of position and influence joined his party,—and a regular correspondence was maintained between the conspirators in this country and those in Flanders.

Hy. was acquainted with all that passed, through confidential agents and spies at home and abroad. Having thus learned the names of the leaders of the plot in England, he caused them to be arrested, and tried for high treason. Lord Fitzwalter, Simon Mountford, Robert Ratcliff, and William Daubeney, were condemned, and executed. Soon afterwards the King succeeded in corrupting Clifford, and the latter denounced, as one of the conspirators, *Sir Wm. Stanley*. The only evidence against him was that he had told Clifford, in confidence, that, were he satisfied of the genuineness of Warbeck's claim, he would not oppose him; but on this testimony he was condemned. He had saved Hy.'s life at Bosworth, but the King allowed the desire of appropriating his immense wealth to outweigh the claims of gratitude, and sanctioned his *execution*, 1495.

Warbeck now found himself placed in critical circumstances. The executions of their leaders had cooled the zeal of his English partizans, while the Archduke Philip and his people were anxious to get rid of him, since Hy. had, in consequence of his finding shelter in Flanders, ceased commercial intercourse with that country, greatly to the detriment of its revenue and prosperity.

Accordingly, Perkin determined on decisive measures. In 1495 he sailed from Flanders, and made a descent upon the coast at Deal, which failed, his forces being driven back to their ships, with a loss of about 200 prisoners, who were all afterwards executed.

He then returned to Flanders.

In 1496, owing to the ratification of the *Intercursus Magnus*, which provided, *inter alia*, that neither Hy. nor Philip should allow each other's enemies shelter, Warbeck was obliged to quit Flanders.

He sailed to Ireland, and landed at Cork ; but found no encouragement, as Poynings, the Viceroy, had reduced the country to quiet submission.

He next went to Scotland. Jas. IV., influenced by the recommendation of the Duchess of Burgundy and Chas. VIII., and hoping to injure Hy., had early embraced Perkin's cause, and had projected on his behalf an invasion of England, which came to nothing, owing to the check put to the plot by Hy.'s severe measures against its leaders.

The Scotch King now, however, welcomed Warbeck as the Duke of York,—gave him his kinswoman, Lady Catherine Gordon, to wife,—and prepared to take decided steps on his behalf. Having assembled a large army, he and Perkin invaded the North of England, hoping that the people would rise and join them. Being disappointed in this expectation, they plundered the country, and returned home laden with booty.

In 1497 Jas. made another expedition into England, but retreated before a large army under the Earl of Surrey. A seven years' truce was then concluded between England and Scotland, by the intervention of the Spanish ambassador, and Warbeck was again compelled to flee.

He once more had recourse to Ireland. Aided by the Earl of Desmond, he besieged Waterford, but failed to take it.

After lurking for some time in the island, he determined on attempting a descent on Cornwall, where a disaffected and rebellious feeling prevailed.

He landed near Penzance, and was soon joined by 6,000 followers,—assumed the title of "Richard IV."—besieged Exeter unsuccessfully,—and advanced thence to Taunton. Here he learned that the King's forces were approaching,—lost heart, though his army was full of courage and confidence,—and fled to sanctuary at Beaulieu, in the New Forest. His followers then submitted to the King's forces: some of them were executed,—others, (together with the places which had supplied the rebels), fined,—and the rest pardoned.

Perkin was induced, by a promise of pardon, to surrender,—taken to London,—and kept in a kind of loose custody for six months. Having then tried to escape, he was put in the stocks for two days, and there made to read a confession of his imposture,—and was then committed

to the Tower. Here, by means of some of the prison officers, he opened communication with the Earl of Warwick, and a plan was concocted between the two prisoners to murder the Lieutenant of the Tower, and effect their escape. The plot being discovered, Hy. determined that Warbeck was too dangerous to be longer spared. Accordingly, he was condemned for high treason, and hanged, and quartered at Tyburn, 1499, *confessing himself an impostor*.

The Earl of Warwick was beheaded a few days after on Tower Hill. The *ostensible charges* on which he suffered were that

1. He had joined in Warbeck's plot to seize the Tower, and murder its Lieutenant.

On this point the evidence against him was not decisive.

2. He had excited rebellion on his behalf. This accusation was based on the fact that Ralph Wilford, son of a shoemaker in Kent, encouraged by a priest named Patrick, had recently proclaimed himself to be Warwick. [Wilford was executed, and Patrick thrown into prison, (where he died), before the conspiracy had time to grow important.]

Of this charge there was not a shadow of proof.

Hy.'s real motives seem to have been—

1. To dispose of a formidable rival, and obviate future risings in his name.
2. To clear the way for Prince Arthur's marriage with Catherine, her father having refused to consent to the union as long as a Yorkist claimant existed.

Warwick's execution was generally execrated by the people.

Was Warbeck an impostor? There is hardly room for a doubt that he *was* so.

The only evidence in favour of his being Rd., Duke of York, is that he was owned by Chas. VIII., James IV., and Margaret, Duchess of Burgundy. But *their* recognition is easily explicable, as being dictated by their hostility to Henry.

The main proofs that he was a pretender are—

1. His own dying confession.
2. There is abundant evidence that Richard, Duke of York, perished in the Tower, with his brother Ed. V. This evidence is that

- (1). The fact of the murder was generally believed.
- (2). Tyrrel, Slater, Dighton, and Forest, who are alleged to have been the agents of the crime, were objects of Rd. III.'s munificence.
- (3). Hy. obtained from Tyrrel and Dighton, (the survivors of the four assassins), shortly after Warbeck's appearance, a full confession of the deed.

To this it is objected that, though they pointed out the spot in the Tower where the princes had been buried, no bodies were found there, on search being made.

This, however, is explained by the fact, stated by More, that the bodies had been removed from their first place of burial, by order of Rd.

- (4). In Chas. II.'s reign, during some alterations in the Tower, there was found, at the bottom of a staircase, a chest containing the bones of two youths, corresponding in size with the respective ages of the princes.

5. Insurrection in Cornwall, 1497.—Hy. having demanded a subsidy to equip an army to repel Jas. IV.'s invasion of the North, the Cornishmen refused to pay their share, alleging that it was the duty of the Northern Counties to provide for their own defence,—and, headed by Flammock, a lawyer, and Joseph, a farrier, 16,000 of them, rudely armed, marched for London to demand the punishment of the instigators of the tax. When they reached Wells, Lord Audley joined them, and took the command. When they had arrived at Blackheath, they were attacked by a Royal force under the *Earl of Oxford*, and, though they made a stubborn stand at *Deptford Bridge*, were defeated, with a loss of 2,000 killed, and 1,500 prisoners, amongst whom was Lord Audley. He and other leaders were executed,—and the rest pardoned, and sent home.

The great cause of the Yorkist plots in this reign was the bitter animosity displayed throughout by Hy. towards that party, and specially manifested by the following acts:—

1. He imprisoned, in the Tower, Edward, Earl of Warwick, son of the Duke of Clarence, brother of Ed IV., who had put him to death. This nobleman was the last *Plantagenet* in direct male descent.

2. He revoked all crown grants made since the 34th year of Hy. VI.,—the grantees being nearly all of the *White Rose* faction.
3. He attainted the wealthy partisans of the hostile House. Having by this revocation and confiscation stripped them of their property, he issued an amnesty to the Yorkists!

STATUTES.

1. Act declaring that no one, who should, by arms or otherwise, assist the reigning monarch, should afterwards be tried for such assistance,—thus enunciating the great constitutional principle that "Possession of the throne gives a sufficient title to the subjects' allegiance."

2. Statute of Fines,—allowing the nobles to cut off the entail of their estates.

3. Act restraining "Benefit of Clergy," by allowing it only once to laymen.

4. Vagrancy Laws,—pressing heavily on beggars, and enacting that impotent poor should be supported in the hundred where they were born.

5. Laws against "Maintenance,"—forbidding, under penalty of heavy fines, the enlistment of retainers, by the nobility, who had been in the habit of *maintaining* large numbers of men in their service, wearing their liveries, and bound to fight in their quarrels,—a practice which had enabled the barons to act independently of the Crown, and had provided the leaders during the Wars of the Roses with the means of supporting their factions.

TREATIES, (not elsewhere mentioned).

1. *Intercursus Magnus*, 1496.—A commercial treaty with Flanders, greatly to the advantage of the latter country. It also provided that Hy. and the Archduke Philip should not shelter each other's enemies.

2. *Intercursus Malus*, 1506.—A commercial treaty with Flanders, less favourable than the former one,—whence the name.

It was extorted by Hy. from Philip, when the latter, on

the death of his mother-in-law, Isabella, was on his way to take possession of Castile, and was driven by stress of weather into Weymouth. It also provided that—

- (1). Philip should marry his sister Margaret to Henry, with a large dowry.

This was not carried out.

- (2). Philip's son, Charles, should, (though betrothed to a daughter of the King of France), marry Hy.'s daughter Mary.

This was not carried out.

- (3). Philip should surrender to Hy., Edmund de la Pole, Earl of Suffolk.

ECCLESIASTICAL AND RELIGIOUS AFFAIRS.

Primates.—Bouchier, Morton, Dean, and Wareham.

Joan Boughton, a widow over 80, was burned for heresy, 1494,—*first English female martyr*.

VARIOUS MATTERS.

Pestilence twice visited London during this reign.

The sweating sickness, 1495, numbered 20,000 victims.

A Plague, of Asiatic origin, 1500, carried off 30,000 of the inhabitants.

The Court of Star Chamber is, by many authorities, stated to have been founded by Hy. This is not correct.

The Court was of much earlier date,—originally consisted of all the members of the *King's Council*,—and took cognizance of civil and criminal causes of all kinds. It sat in a hall in the Palace of Westminster,—called, from its decorations, the *Star Chamber*, which name it retained after the place of its assembling was changed.

It gradually became such an instrument of oppression that, under Ed. III., its powers were limited by statute, after which its authority was little exercised until Hy.'s reign.

In 1487 Hy. established a fresh tribunal in place of the old Star Chamber Court, of which it may, however, be regarded as a modification, since it was composed chiefly of members of the Council.

It consisted of the Chancellor, the Treasurer, the Privy-Seal, (who acted as presiding judges),—a fourth temporal

peer of the Council, one bishop, and the two Chief-Justices, or, if they were unable to attend, any two of the Bench.

Its design was to punish breaches of the law against *Maintenance*,—sheriffs for unfair summoning of juries, and false returns of elections,—juries for taking bribes,—conspiracies,—and riots.

Under Hy. VIII. the President of the Council was appointed a fourth judge, and towards the end of this monarch's reign the old *Star Chamber Court* was revived, and the tribunal erected by Hy. VII. was merged in it.

The judges, however, remained the same, while the number of members was increased by the addition of all the peers of the realm, whether belonging or not to the Council.

Under Jas. I. and Chas. I., bishops, and temporal peers not of the Privy Council, ceased to be members of the Court.

On its revival under Hy. VIII. the Court of Star Chamber resumed its ancient general civil and criminal jurisdiction. The former, however, was gradually transferred to the other Courts, and the attention of the S. Chamber confined to the latter.

It punished,—besides the offences of which Hy. VII.'s Court took cognizance, perjury, forgery, fraud, libel,—and *all misdemeanours*, (especially those of a political character), *beyond the scope of the law*.

Informations were, as a rule, to be laid by the Attorney-General, but might proceed from private individuals also. The method of trial was most unjust, and almost certain to issue in conviction,—for evidence was taken beforehand, and read at the trial, the witnesses being absent,—and *all cases were decided without the intervention of juries*.

Frequently the person accused was examined, (sometimes under torture), in private, and convicted on his own confession, without trial.

The penalties, (both of Hy. VII.'s tribunal and the Star Chamber), consisted, at first, of fines and imprisonments, to which were afterwards added the pillory, flogging, and mutilation.

The Court established by Hy. VII. was not guilty of any very great abuse of power, though it was made an instrument of exaction, by the greedy King.

The revived Court of Star Chamber, however, became an engine of monstrous oppression,—its chief power arising from its power over juries, which enabled it virtually to re-try all causes, and thus to control and overrule all the other tribunals.

It was *abolished* by the *Long Parliament*, 1641.

Henry's Exactions.—Hy.'s chief agents in extorting money were two lawyers,—Rd. Empson, and Edmund Dudley. The former was low-born, coarse, and brutal; the latter of good birth, and address. Hy. made them Barons of Exchequer, and thus placed them in a position where they could abuse their legal knowledge in his behalf. They revived obsolete penal statutes,—sold offices and privileges,—and condoned offences, for bribes. They kept a host of spies all over the country to inform against violators of the laws.

By this means,—by the money obtained from marriage contracts, and other treaties,—by the war-supplies won by Parliament, and not used by him,—and by rigid economy, Hy. amassed, and left behind him, a sum fully equal to £8,000,000 of our money.

When his health began to decline, his past extortions greatly troubled him; and, as a sop to conscience, he distributed alms, founded religious houses, and, in his Will, ordered restitution to be made to those whom he had wronged.

MARITIME DISCOVERY, COMMERCE, AND NAVAL AFFAIRS.

Two great events of nautical discovery occurred in this reign :—

1. **America was discovered**, by Christopher Columbus, a Genoese,—Sebastian Cabot, a Venetian by parentage, but Bristolian by birth,—and others.

Columbus discovered the Bahamas, 1492.

It was not Hy.'s fault that the credit of fitting out *this* expedition is not attached to England. Columbus, finding no countenance at the Courts of Spain and Portugal, sent another Bartholomew to London, to ask the King's aid and interprize. Hy. entertained the proposal, and sent

the envoy back to fetch Columbus to England. Bartholomew, however, on the return voyage, fell into the hands of pirates, and was detained by them as prisoner. Meanwhile, Columbus had obtained from Ferdinand and Isabella the ships he needed. However, England had a by no means unimportant share in opening up the New World, for

Sebastian Cabot, and his father, being sent out under Hy's patronage on a voyage Westward, discovered the mainland of America, 1497,—touching at Labrador, and coasting Southward thence to Florida.

Columbus reached the mainland, 1498.

Cabral, a Portuguese, discovered Brazil, 1500.

2. Vasco da Gama, a Portuguese, discovered the route to India round the Cape of Good Hope, 1497.

(*Vasco was not, however, the first to double the Cape; Diaz had already done so.*)

These two events, besides giving a vast impetus to navigation, completely changed the commercial relations of the European States. The Western nations commanding the trade with the New World, and that with India by the new route, sprang into maritime importance,—while Venice, and Genoa, which had hitherto monopolized the commerce of the East, and the sovereignty of the seas, began rapidly to decline.

Hy. gave considerable encouragement to commerce and naval affairs:—

The Merchant-Adventurers Company was incorporated 1505, under his auspices, with a view to share in the traffic with America and the East. The Company claimed a monopoly of all the foreign trade of England; Parliament met their demands so far as to order that all other ships should pay them for permission to engage in the English carrying-trade.

A Commercial Treaty was made with Denmark.

The Great Harry, a two-decked man-of-war, of 1,000 tons burden, was built by the King, at a cost of £14,000.

SCOTCH AFFAIRS.

Hy. continued the secret encouragement that Rd. III. had afforded the Scotch nobles in their conspiracy to de-

throne Jas. III., and place his son, (afterwards Jas. IV.), on the throne.

He appears to have been influenced in this course by no particular motive, beyond a desire to see the neighbouring kingdom weakened by civil war, and torn by dissensions, which might eventually turn to his own profit.

However, upon the accession of Jas. IV., a treaty of peace was concluded with England, and, with the exception of Jas.'s invasions on behalf of Warbeck, cordial relations existed between England and Scotland until Hy.'s death,—a state of things owing chiefly to Hy.'s sagacity and repugnance to war.

IRISH AFFAIRS.

The English *Pale*, (*i.e.* the portion of Ireland obeying English rule), at the commencement of Hy.'s reign embraced, *nominally*, the E. and S. of the country,—but *really* extended only to the counties of Dublin, Louth, Kildare, and the Meaths.

It has been stated that Ireland was a stronghold of Yorkist feeling, and that nearly all the island, headed by the Earl of Kildare, the Viceroy, declared in favour of Simnel.

After the battle of Stoke, Kildare and the other rebel leaders were pardoned by Hy., and took an oath of allegiance to him.

In consequence of Warbeck's finding support in Ireland on his first visit, and Kildare's being suspected of complicity in the plot, the latter was dismissed from his lieutenancy, and determined steps were taken by Hy. to reduce the country to submission and order.

He sent over, as Viceroy, Sir Edward Poynings, a wise and vigorous ruler, who completely subjected the whole Pale,—principally by an Act called

Poynings' Law, or the Statute of Drogheda, 1495.

Chief Articles :—

1. The *Law of Sanctuary* to be abolished.

This Act, by which any offender against the law in England, Wales, or Scotland, might take sanctuary in Ireland, had originated with the Duke of York, when Viceroy of Ireland, and was calculated to promote rebellion, by affording a shelter to traitors.

2. All statutes hitherto made in England to be valid in Ireland.

3. No Parliament to be henceforth held in Ireland without the Lieutenant first informing the King and the Council of the causes requiring its assembling, and of the measures to be brought before it,—and receiving the King's licence to hold it.

This was *the most important article*. Upon the basis of this Statute Ireland was governed till the *Union*.

Poynings arrested Kildare, and sent him to England to be tried for high treason. Hy., however, pardoned him, in consequence of his witty replies to his questions, and restored him to his lieutenancy, which he loyally exercised till his death, and subjugated Connaught to English rule.

CONTEMPORARY EUROPEAN SOVEREIGNS.

Scotland.	France.	Germany.	Spain,
			(Castile & Arragon).
JAMES III.	CHARLES VIII.	FREDERIO V.	FERDINAND V., and
JAMES IV.	LOUIS XII.	MAXIMILIAN I.	ISABELLA.

Popes.

INNOCENT VIII.	PIUS III.
ALEXANDER VI.	JULIUS II.

HENRY VIII.

Dates.—1491, (at Greenwich);—April 22, 1509;—Jan. 28, 1547, (at Westminster,—of general decay, caused by his gross bodily habit), in his 56th year. Reigned 37½ years.

Descent.—Second, (but eldest surviving), son of Hy. VII.

Soon after his birth he was created Duke of York, and, in 1494, was made Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland, Poynings being his deputy. Until his brother Arthur's death, he was being educated for the Church, his father intending to make him Archbishop of Canterbury.

Married six times.

1. Catherine of Arragon,—m. 1509,—divorced 1533,—d. 1536.

Hy. married Catherine when 12 years old ; but, at 14, protested against the union, (without specifying any reason), by suggestion of his father, so that he might hereafter be in a position to make another choice. He re-married her, however, a few weeks after his accession, against the opinion of the Primate and several members of the Council.

About 1524 the King began to entertain doubts as to the legality of his marriage with his brother's widow. Several children had been born to him ; but they had all, excepting Mary, died in infancy,—and he pretended to see in this the judgment of Heaven upon an unlawful union. He professed also to be alarmed lest, should Mary succeed him, her legitimacy should be called in question,—the Scotch King, who was next heir, assert his claim,—and England be again plunged into intestine war.

Influenced thus, *apparently*, by conscientious scruples, and genuine patriotism, he ceased cohabitation with Catherine, and determined to apply to the Pope for a decree annulling the sanction formerly given to the marriage by Julius II., and pronouncing a divorce.

Henry's real motive, however, in desiring a dissolution of the union was that he had grown tired of Catherine, and fallen in love with Anne Boleyn.

Catherine, though amiable and affectionate, chilled Henry by her nun-like austerity and absorption in religion ; she was, besides, six years older than himself, had lost her youthful charms, and was afflicted by disease. Anne, on the contrary, possessed youth, extraordinary beauty, wit, and vivacity, with a truly French love of gaiety and pleasure.

In 1527 Hy. sent his secretary, Knight, to Clement VII., to apply for the divorce. The Pope was then a prisoner of Chas. V.'s ; but the Kings of England and France had made a league to drive the Imperialists out of Italy, and release Clement. Accordingly, he was anxious to please Hy., and, receiving Knight cordially, promised that the King's wishes should be gratified.

On afterwards Chas. restored the Pope to liberty upon the advance of the French into Italy.

The Pontiff having thus secured his end without Hy.'s aid, and being deterred from granting the divorce by terror of Chas., (who was Catherine's nephew, and had pledged himself to support her cause), showed no anxiety to fulfil his promise made to Knight, but, while professing willingness to meet Hy.'s wishes, kept him in suspense by ingenious expedients.

At length the King grew so restive, and even threatening, that Clement was compelled to adopt some measure having about it a show of business. Accordingly, he gave a commission to Cardinals Campeggio and Wolsey to try the legality of the marriage.

The Cardinals,—after a vain attempt to induce Catherine to consent to a separation, and to become a nun,—commenced their sittings in London, May 31, 1529, Hy. and the Queen being present by summons. Catherine, however, when called upon to answer to her name, fell at her husband's feet, uttering a most touching appeal to him; and then, after declaring that she would not be tried by a Court biased against her, rose, withdrew, and did not again appear. The trial, after being prolonged till July 23, was suddenly adjourned till October; and, a few days afterwards, Hy. and Catherine received an intimation from the Pope that the cause was removed to Rome, where he summoned them to appear, personally or by proxy. These measures, which were forced upon Clement by Chas., were virtually a refusal to grant the divorce. Hy. unjustly laid the blame of the miscarriage on Wolsey, and that Minister's fall was the result.

The King was now a prey to conflicting motives: his desire to possess Anne led him to contemplate a rupture with the Pope,—while his loyalty to the Romish faith restrained him from such a step. While debating within himself what course to pursue, a seemingly easy way out of the difficulty presented itself. Hy., in the course of a progress which he was making, accompanied by Anne, stayed awhile at Waltham. Here Gardiner, the Secretary, and Fox, the Almoner, chanced to spend an evening with Dr. Thos. Cranmer, then Fellow and Theological Tutor of Jesus Coll., Camba. The question of the divorce coming under conversation, Cranmer suggested that the legality of the marriage was a matter to be decided, not by Rome, but by theological scholars,—and that, consequently, the

opinion of the universities of Europe should be sought, which, if favourable to Hy., could not fail to compel the Pope to yield his consent to the divorce. This being reported to Hy., he declared that Cranmer had "the right sow by the ear,"—sent for him,—and employed him to draw up a statement of the case, which was then submitted to the universities. Those of France, Italy, and Germany declared the marriage unlawful, though the latter expressed some doubts as to the expediency of dissolving it; Oxford and Cambridge, (fearing a breach with Rome, and the consequent spread of Protestantism), were inclined to pronounce against the divorce; but, on pressure being brought to bear upon them, decided in Hy.'s favour.

These opinions were laid before the Pope,—he refused to be influenced by them,—and Hy. determined to carry out his wishes without regard to Clement. He privately married Anne, and then gave Cranmer, now Archbishop of Canterbury, a commission to try the legality of the marriage with Catherine.

Cranmer opened his Court 1533, at Dunstable, six miles from Ampthill, where Catherine then resided. The Queen refusing to appear, personally, or by proxy, the Archbishop proceeded to pronounce a divorce, on the ground that the marriage had been illegal, and, therefore, void, from the first,—and then confirmed Hy.'s union with Anne.

Clement, on hearing of these doings, annulled Cranmer's sentence, and threatened Hy. with excommunication, should he be guided by it.

After the divorce, Catherine was styled Dowager-Princess of Wales, and, with a reduced retinue and income, retired to Kimbolton, Hants, where she died after a lingering illness, caused chiefly by mental anguish. One of her last acts was to write a pathetically affectionate letter to Hy., urging on him the importance of religion and the vanity of earth,—declaring her devoted attachment to him,—and tenderly commending their daughter Mary to his care.

2. Anne Boleyn,—m. 1533,—divorced and beheaded, 1536.

Anne was daughter of Sir Thos. Boleyn, and niece of the Duke of Norfolk. She went to France as maid-of-honour to Mary, when the latter married Louis XII. On that monarch's death, and Mary's return to England, Anne

entered the household of Francis I.'s Queen, and afterwards that of Margaret of Navarre, sister of Francis. On occasion of the quarrel between the French King and Hy. in 1522, she returned to England. Hy., on seeing her, was so struck with her beauty and wit that he declared to Wolsey *she was worthy of a crown*. She was appointed one of the Queen's maids-of-honour,—Hy.'s attentions to her became marked,—*and his conscience began to be uneasy about his marriage with Catherine*.

Percy, son of the Earl of Northumberland, now became enamoured of her; but Hy. compelled him to leave Court, and marry the Earl of Shrewsbury's daughter.

Hy. having proposed to Anne to become his mistress, she retired in anger to France, where she remained two years.

She returned in 1527,—and Hy. commenced proceedings to enable him to marry her.

Their union was privately solemnized, Jan. 25, 1533, four months before Cranmer pronounced his judgment, she having previously been created Marchioness of Pembroke. Some authorities, however, give Nov. 14, 1532, as the date of the union.

A week after the divorce she was crowned with great pomp.

She is said to have shewn unbecoming joy on the death of Catherine, but her own terrible end came in less than five months after.

Her proud elevation, and her partiality to Protestantism, had procured her many enemies,—those of her own family being not the least bitter. Her conduct, owing to her French education, was giddy, free, and imprudent, and gave her foes the means of accusing her to the King of infidelity to him. Hy. was quite ready to listen to their stories, for his affection for Anne had now cooled, and had been replaced by a violent dislike, in consequence of her having recently borne a dead son,—while he had conceived a violent passion for Lady Jane Seymour.

She was, accordingly, committed to the Tower on a charge of incest with her brother, Viscount Rochefort,—and of adultery with Norris, Brereton, Sir Francis Weston, and Smeton, gentlemen of the Court, her chief accuser being her sister-in-law, Viscountess Rochefort. The latter four were tried, condemned without any legal evidence,

and executed, Smeton being hanged, and the others beheaded. Smeton confessed that he was guilty ; but no reliance can be placed upon this statement, since he was induced to make it by false promises that his life would be spared, and the Queen's accusers did not dare confront him with her.

Anne and Rochefort were then tried by a jury of peers, presided over by the Duke of Norfolk, (Anne being accused of compassing the King's death, and promising her respective paramours to marry them after his decease),—found guilty, (on what evidence is not known),—and condemned to death.

By Hy.'s orders, though against his own judgment, Cranmer now pronounced Anne's marriage with Hy. null and void, on the flimsy pretext that she had been betrothed to Percy, before her union with the King.

She was then executed, calmly protesting her innocence, sending her grateful thanks to Hy. for all his kindness to her, and commending their daughter Elizabeth to his care.

Authorities are divided on the question of Anne's criminality ; but the balance is in her favour, and, at any rate, no evidence exists in proof of her guilt.

Whether guilty or not, however, her execution was a monstrous injustice, since her marriage with Hy. had been declared void, and, consequently, she could not be guilty of adultery.

3. Jane Seymour,—m. 1536,—d. 1537.

Jane was daughter of Sir John Seymour, a Wiltshire gentleman, and possessed great beauty and accomplishments. She was, like her predecessor, in the service of Mary, Louis XII.'s Queen, and then of Francis I.'s consort. She returned to England,—became one of Anne Boleyn's maids-of-honor,—and gained Hy.'s affections. On Anne's imprisonment she retired to her home in Wilts : thither the King followed her, post-haste, immediately after his late wife's execution, and married her, apparently nothing loth, the day after that event ! She died at Hampton Court, thirteen days after giving birth to a son, (Ed. VI.) Hy. seems to have loved her more than any other of his wives.

4. Anne of Cleves,—m. and divorced, 1540,—d. 1557.

Anne was daughter of John, Duke of Cleves, a Protestant prince, and her eldest sister Sibylla was married to the Elector of Saxony, the great Lutheran chief of Germany.

Hy., after in vain negotiating for a Roman Catholic princess to succeed Jane, was induced by Cromwell, whose pet scheme was a league of the Teutonic nations of Europe in favour of the Reformation, to ask for Anne's hand, being prepossessed in her favour by a flattering portrait of her by Holbein.

The princess was sent over to England, and Hy., in his eagerness, hastened *incog.* to Rochester to meet her, and was disgusted to find her stout, unwieldy, destitute of all grace of manner, and unable to speak a word of English. He would have repudiated the contract, and sent her home at once, but that Francis and Chas. were now in alliance, and, consequently, he could not afford to insult the German princes. He accordingly married her,—but in his heart determined to get rid of her, and be revenged on Cromwell for his unlucky speculation, as soon as possible. His wish for a separation was intensified by his falling in love with Catherine Howard. In the same month that Cromwell was executed, Convocation annulled the King's marriage, on the pretext of Anne's having been betrothed to the Marquis of Lorraine previous to her union with Hy., and Parliament confirmed the judgment.

Anne was then informed of the decision, and was offered, if she acquiesced in it, a pension of £3,000,—Richmond Palace for a residence,—and the title and rank of a sister to Hy. She, being stolidly good-tempered and easy-going, readily accepted the conditions, and consented to the divorce.

The rest of her life was spent in quiet comfort: she was always on cordial terms with the Court, and appeared in public at Mary's coronation. She died at Chelsea, greatly esteemed for her piety and charitableness.

5. Catherine Howard,—m. 1540,—beheaded 1542.

Catherine was daughter of Lord Howard, and niece of the Duke of Norfolk. Early left motherless, she was placed under the charge of the Duchess of Norfolk, who left her to do much as she pleased. The consequence was that she drifted into immorality. After Hy.'s marriage with Anne of Cleves, Gardiner, knowing his determination

to be rid of her, and wishing, in the interests of his faith, to see her succeeded by a Roman Catholic Queen, brought Catherine under the notice of Hy., who conceived a violent affection for her,—appointed her maid-of-honour to Anne,—and married her a few days after his divorce from that princess.

After about eighteen months' happy union, Cranmer imparted to Hy. reports that were current of her unchastity both before and after her marriage. The King reluctantly issued orders to arrest two of her lovers, Derham, and Culpepper, together with Lady Rochefort, who, though the chief witness against Anne Boleyn, had been Catherine's *confidante* in her amours. They were all condemned, and executed, the Queen confessing her criminality before marriage, and little doubt existing of her guilt after her union with Hy.

6. Catherine Parr,—m. 1543,—d. 1548.

Catherine was daughter of Sir Thos. Parr, an officer of Hy.'s household, who died while his child was very young. She married

1. *Lord Brough*, who left her a widow at the age of 15.
2. *Lord Latimer*, during her union with whom she heartily embraced Protestantism. He died in 1543.
3. *Hy. VIII.*

Her position was one of great peril, for the King had become a brutal tyrant, and the Roman Catholic officials watched her closely; but her strong good sense enabled her to outride all dangers, while, at the same time, she effectually fostered the Reformation.

4. *Sir Thomas Seymour*, who had courted her at Lord Latimer's death, but had been set aside in favour of Hy., and who was extremely unkind to her. She died a few days after the birth of a daughter,—not without suspicion of poison. It is disputed whether her child died young, or grew up and was married.

Issue.—*Mary I.*,—by Catherine of Arragon.

Elizabeth.—by Anne Boleyn.

Edward VI.,—by Jane Seymour.

Claim.—*Good*,—being next heir to Hy. VII., on whom Parliament had settled the succession, and uniting in himself the opposing claims of Lancaster and York.

Character.—Hy.'s appearance was strikingly prepos-

sessing at the time of his accession. His person was elegant, his face frank, and his manners cordial. In later life he became gross and unwieldy, and his countenance assumed a cruel, sensual cast.

His intellect was vigorous and penetrating, his wit considerable, and his education learned.

He was naturally generous, ardent, energetic, and firm; but circumstances unfortunately gave an evil bias to qualities that might, under favourable auspices, have developed into a lofty and virtuous character.

He found himself in early youth uncontrolled master of himself and of vast pecuniary resources. The Earl of Surrey, anxious to ingratiate himself with the new monarch, induced him to enter upon a course of reckless prodigality and pleasure, whence originated the sensual selfishness Hy. afterwards displayed.

Indulged in every whim by his Ministers, and finding Parliament subservient, his strength of will degenerated into tyranny.

At the same time, being flattered by his attendants, and courted by foreign powers, he became vain and arrogant.

These master passions, having taken possession of him, naturally brought other vices in their train. To gratify his lust, he sacrificed the ties of affection; to provide means for his extravagances, he was guilty of injustice and dishonesty; while to those who opposed, or who seemed to oppose, his will, he shewed himself violent, cruel, capricious, and ungrateful.

With all his faults, however, Hy. retained the admiration, if not the attachment, of his people till the last, which was doubtless owing to his being a thorough Englishman in his bluff and jovial address, his open-handedness, his bull-dog courage and tenacity of purpose, and his genuine patriotism.

WARS.

THREE WITH FRANCE.

1. 1511-1514

Origin.—In 1510 Pope Julius II. formed, with Spain and Venice, against France, the *Holy League*, with the prime object of expelling the French from N. Italy.

In 1511 Hy., who was anxious to exert a commanding influence in European politics, was induced by the Pope,

who flattered him by the bestowal upon him of the title of "*Head of the Italian League*," to join the alliance against England's hereditary foe.

Events.—In 1512 Hy. was led by his long-headed father-in-law, Ferdinand, to unite in an expedition against the S. of France, for the purpose of regaining Guienne for England, and conquering Navarre for Spain.

10,000 English troops, under the *Marquis of Dorset*, were despatched to **Biscay** to co-operate with the Spanish force. Ferdinand,—on the plea that it would not be safe to enter France, leaving hostile Navarre in their rear,—induced the English commander to consent to the latter kingdom being first attacked. Accordingly, employing the English forces to watch the frontier against the French, Ferdinand invaded Navarre,—conquered it,—and made it part of Spain. The army of the *Marquis of Dorset*, meanwhile, suffered bitterly from privation and sickness, and became so reduced that, after six months' absence, its commander returned home, having done nothing but act as a cat's-paw for the Spanish monarch.

At Sea *Sir Edward Howard* defeated the French fleet, under *Admiral Primauguet*, off the coast of Brittany, with the loss, however, of the "Regent," the largest English ship engaged.

In 1513 the Emperor Maximilian joined the League.

Sir Ed. Howard was killed in attempting, with two ships, to cut out six French vessels near **Brest**.

25,000 English troops were despatched to France, under the *Earl of Shrewsbury* and *Lord Herbert*, and besieged

Terouenne, in Artois, defended by *Teligny*. Hy. and *Maximilian*, (with a mixed German and Flemish force), afterwards joined them,—the Emperor, to flatter Hy., nominally serving under him, but in reality commanding the expedition.

A body of 10,000 French cavalry, under the *Duke of Longueville*, coming to the relief of the town, were attacked and routed by an inferior number of German horse and English archers. The engagement is known as the

Battle of Guinegate,—from its locality; or the

Battle of Spurs,—from the good use made of their rowels, by the French, in their speedy and disgraceful flight.

Terouenne soon afterwards surrendered.

Tournay was then besieged, and capitulated.

After these small results Hy. returned to England, with a great part of the army.

In 1514 the French and English fleets amused themselves by ravaging respectively the coasts of Sussex and Normandy.

The French having been meanwhile expelled from N. Italy, the League was now dissolved, by Leo, Ferdinand, and Maximilian making terms with Louis.

Hy., finding that Ferdinand and Maximilian were negotiating for the marriage of their grandson, Archduke Charles, (who was already betrothed to Mary, Hy.'s sister), with a daughter of the King of France, was also induced to make *Peace* with Louis :—

Terms :—1. Louis, (then aged 53), to marry Mary, Hy.'s sister, (aged 16).

(The marriage took place, and Louis died three months after).

2. Hy. to receive 1,000,000 crowns, by half-yearly instalments,—partly as war indemnity, and partly as arrears due to Hy. VII.

3. Hy. to retain Tournay.

2. 1522-1525.

Origin.—Francis and Charles appealed to Hy. to mediate between them. By his desire they sent ambassadors to Calais to arrange a settlement, under the arbitration of Wolsey and the Papal Nuncio. Chas., having previously, through Wolsey's agency, enlisted Hy.'s sympathy for himself, made outrageous demands, which Francis refused, and so put an end to the negotiations.

An alliance against France was then entered into by Hy., Chas., and the Pope,—it being arranged that Chas. should marry Hy.'s daughter, Mary.

Events.—In 1522 Hy., during a visit of the Emperor to England, declared war against France ; but the contest was feebly carried on, and languished throughout, owing to the King's want of money. 17,000 men, under the Earl of Surrey, landed at Calais, and laid waste Northern France, as far as Amiens,—returning to Calais with large booty.

In 1523 the Duke of Suffolk led the English army within sight of Paris, devastating the country on his march; but sickness amongst the troops compelled his return to Calais.

In 1525 Francis was taken captive at Pavia by Chas. Hy. then proposed to the Emperor that they should jointly invade France, on the N. and S.,—that the two armies should meet at Paris,—that Hy. should there be crowned King of France,—and that he should then aid Chas. to recover Burgundy.

Chas., calculating upon obtaining all *he* wanted from his captive without war, and little willing to see any increase of the power of the King of England, rejected the latter's proposition.

Hy. thereupon, influenced by Wolsey, concluded, through the Queen-mother, as Regent, a *Treaty* with France:—

Terms:—1. Hy. to use his influence to procure the release of Francis.

2. Hy. to be paid 1,800,000 crowns, in half-yearly instalments of 50,000 crowns.

3. Mary, Hy.'s sister, to receive regularly, in future, the profits of her dowry.

4. Wolsey to be paid 100,000 crowns,—*nominally*, as arrears of pension granted for resigning the bishopric of Tournay,—*really*, for his good offices with Hy. on behalf of France.

3. 1543-1546.

Origin.—Chas., alarmed by Francis concluding an alliance with the Turks, determined on war, and induced Hy. to join him, on pretext of *aid afforded to Scotland*, (then at war with England), and of *non-payment of money due by treaty*. It was agreed that the two monarchs should invade France,—march direct on Paris, and there unite their forces.

In 1544 Hy. landed at Calais with 30,000 men, and was joined by 14,000 Flemings, while Chas. entered France on the N.E. with a large army.

Hy., instead of moving on Paris, besieged

Boulogne, which surrendered after two months.

Chas., on advancing towards Paris, learned how Hy. was engaged,—professed great indignation at his breach of compact, (though himself had stopped by the way to

take some towns),—and concluded with Francis the Treaty of Cr  py, leaving England to continue the war alone. Hy. then returned home.

In 1545 Francis prepared a fleet of 200 ships, and an army of 60,000 men, for a descent upon England. Hy. assembled 120,000 troops, and put the coast in a state of thorough defence. After an engagement off Portsmouth, in which the French sank the *Mary Rose*, with 700 men, *part of the French force effected a landing on the I. of Wight*, but were compelled to retreat to their ships, and the expedition was shortly compelled by disease to return home.

In 1546, after some unimportant fighting in the N. of France, *Peace* was concluded:—

Terms.—1. Francis to pay Hy. 2,000,000 crowns,—partly as war-indemnity, and partly as arrears due by past treaties.

2. Hy. to hold Boulogne for eight years, or until the money should be paid.

THREE WARS WITH SCOTLAND.—(See "*Scotch Affairs*.")

REBELLIONS.

1. 1525.—After the conclusion of peace with France, in 1525, Hy., expecting a quarrel with the Emperor, by Wolsey's advice, *endeavoured to raise a large subsidy without consent of Parliament*. A general opposition followed,—*the whole country was ripe for revolt*, and in Suffolk and several other counties a rising actually commenced. The King then revoked the commission authorising the subsidy, and the *Dukes of Norfolk and Suffolk* induced those in arms to lay them down. The ringleaders surrendered, but were pardoned.

2. In Lincolnshire, 1536.

Origin.—Discontent at religious innovations, and especially at the dissolution of the smaller monasteries, whereby great distress was caused.

Object.—To expel from Court, and punish, "base-born persons," (*i.e.* Cranmer, Cromwell, and other Reformers),—to suppress heresy, (*i.e.* Protestantism),—and to restore the old order of things in the Church.

Leaders.—Dr. Mackerel, Abbot of Barlings, and a man named Melton, who called himself Captain Cobler.

The Duke of Suffolk marched against them, and induced them, on promise of pardon, to submit, and to give up their leaders, who were afterwards executed.

3. The Pilgrimage of Grace, 1536 and 1537,—had the same origin and object as *Melton's Rebellion*, of which it was really an extension into Yorkshire.

It took its name from the fact that at the head of the insurgents marched a number of priests, bearing crosses and banners, on each of which were woven representations of a crucifix, a chalice, and the five wounds of Christ.

Leaders.—*Aske*, a Doncaster lawyer, and several abbots, nobles, and gentlemen, including Lords Latimer, Scrope, and Hussey.

The insurgents, 40,000 in number, took York, Hull, and Pontefract,—the Archbishop of York and Lord D'Arcy, who had been shut up in the latter place, joining them, ostensibly through compulsion;—but found themselves opposed at Doncaster to a force of 5,000, under the Duke of Norfolk. By offering to pardon those who submitted, and promising that a Parliament should meet at York to redress wrongs, the Duke speedily reduced the revolt.

In 1537 the insurrection broke out again. Norfolk advanced with a large army,—the insurgents dispersed,—and Lords Hussey and D'Arcy, Aske, and many of the rank and file, were executed.

HENRY'S PARLIAMENTS

Were, on the whole, subservient to him.

The only occasions on which they opposed him was when they were annoyed at Wolsey's overbearing and presumptuous treatment of them.

In 1502, led by More, the Commons refused a subsidy.

From 1515-1523 there was no Parliament, Wolsey having the administration entirely in his own hands.

In 1523 want of money for the French war compelled Hy. to summon a Parliament.

Wolsey came in person to the Commons, and demanded a property-tax of 4s. in the pound on every one worth £40 and more. After a debate of fifteen days, however, they voted only 2s. in the pound, the payments to extend over four years.

Wolsey, greatly chagrined, again came down to the

House, and wished to reason with its members; but he was summarily dismissed, with the answer that they reasoned only amongst themselves.

Hy. was so enraged at this opposition to his will that he called no Parliament from 1523-1529.

The Parliaments assembled after the latter date were intensely loyal, and even servile.

STATUTES, (not mentioned elsewhere).

Three Acts of Succession.

1. 1534.—1. Confirmed Hy.'s divorce from Catherine of Arragon, and his marriage with Anne Boleyn.

2. Settled the crown upon his issue by Anne.

All who refused, upon demand, to swear to be bound by this Act were declared to be guilty of

Misprision of Treason,—i.e. an offence almost amounting to treason,—“*misprisions*,” (from Fr. *mépris*=neglect or contempt), being all offences closely bordering upon capital ones.

The penalties for *Misprision of Treason* were, “loss of the profits of land during life, forfeiture of goods, and life-imprisonment.”

2. 1536.—1. Confirmed Hy.'s divorce from Anne Boleyn.

2. Declared Mary and Elizabeth illegitimate.

3. Settled the crown on Hy.'s issue by Jane Seymour, or, (should she die childless), by any subsequent wife.

4. Gave Hy. power, should he have no further issue, to settle the succession, thereafter, by will or letters-patent.

3. 1544.—Settled the crown, first, on Edward and his issue,—secondly, on Mary,—and, thirdly, on Elizabeth.

(No provision was made by this Act for the succession should Ed., Mary, and Elizabeth all leave no issue; but Hy., by the authority given him by the Act of 1536, directed in his will, that, in such case, the crown should devolve on the descendants of his younger sister Mary, Duchess of Suffolk,—thus excluding the Scotch branch of the family descended from his elder sister Margaret).

Statute releasing Hy. from all his debts, 1529.

Statute empowering the monarch to repeal all Acts passed while under the age of 24, 1537.

Statute declaring proclamations made by the King

and Council, and not prejudicial to the people's liberties, or opposed to established laws, to have the same force as if they were Acts of Parliament, 1540.

Statute remitting to Hy. all money borrowed by him since 1542, and ordering that any sums he had repaid should be returned to him, 1544.

A Poor Law,—enforcing, for the first time, compulsory support of paupers.

Two Statutes against Vagrancy.

1. 1531,—J.P.'s to grant to the aged poor and impotent, begging-licences, authorizing them to beg within certain limits,—any one exceeding the prescribed bounds, to be confined in the stocks for two days and nights.

All persons begging without licence, to be whipped, or kept in the stocks for three days and nights. "Sturdy and valiant beggars" to be whipped at a cart's-tail,—returned to their parishes,—and there put to hard labour.

Proctors, pardoners, quacks, fortune-tellers, &c., wandering about in the exercise of their calling, to be whipped for two successive days, for first offence,—for second, to be whipped for two days, be put in the pillory, and lose the right ear,—for third, two whippings, pillory, and loss of other ear.

These measures not proving sufficiently repressive, and less excuse existing for vagrancy, after the dissolution of the smaller monasteries, (since much of the property of these institutions was devoted to public works, and employment for the labouring-classes was thus ensured), severer enactments were deemed necessary, and *Hy. himself drew up*

2. 1536,—the main articles being that

1. No private charity, save "broken meat," should be bestowed.

2. Alms for the needy should be collected on Sundays and holidays, and that the priest should keep account of such sums, and their disposal.

3. Idle children above five years old should be apprenticed to some trade.

4. Labourers might not change their masters at will, or wander in search of employment,—or keep their children at home, without accounting for their time ;—and, if out

of work, might be compelled to enter the service of any master who might claim their labour.

5. *Able-bodied vagrants found begging a third time to be put to death as felons!*

These statutes were rendered necessary by the great increase in the number of beggars, which can be accounted for on two grounds:—

1. Landed property had been gradually passing out of the hands of feudal lords, who were bound to maintain a number of vassals, into the possession of those who owned no such obligations.

2. The monasteries had been in the habit of relieving, and affording lodging to, the destitute, while the lands belonging to them had been let to tenants at light rents.

When the religious houses were suppressed, however, their charities ceased, and the new proprietors of the lands either dispossessed the former tenants, or compelled them, by the heavy rents they demanded, to give up their holdings.

The majority of those deprived of their means of subsistence by these two causes became paupers or vagrants.

Wilful Murder by Poisoning was made Treason,—the punishment to be boiling to death!

(This law was passed in consequence of his cook attempting to poison the Bishop of Rochester's family).

Statute of Uses.—Declared it illegal to leave land to churches for a longer period than 20 years.

The First Statute of Bankrupts.

Statute allowing all persons, with a few exceptions, being absolute owners, to dispose of, by will, two-thirds of their lands held in chivalry, and all their lands held in socage.

Statute forbidding bound books to be imported from the Continent.

TREATIES, (not mentioned elsewhere).

Between Hy. and Francis, 1518, for the restoration of Tournay to France,—brought about by Wolsey's influence.

Terms.—1. The Dauphin to marry Hy.'s daughter, Mary.

2. Tournay to be restored as her dowry.

3. Francis to pay Hy. 600,000 crowns in 12 annual instalments.

4. Wolsey to resign the bishopric of Tournay, and to receive a pension of 12,000 livres as compensation.

Between Hy. and Francis, 1527.—In pursuance of Chas.'s policy of making Austria supreme in Italy, his forces, under the traitor Duke of Bourbon, sacked Rome, and made Clement prisoner in the Castle of St. Angelo. Hy. and Francis thereupon concluded a treaty.

Terms.—1. The Pope to be released, and the Imperialists driven out of Italy.

2. Hy. to give up all claim to the French crown.

3. Hy. and all his successors to receive a pension of 50,000 crowns from France.

(Nothing ever came of this treaty, for Chas. and Francis reconciled their differences by the First Peace of Cambray, 1529).

ECCLESIASTICAL AND RELIGIOUS AFFAIRS.

PRIMATES.—Wareham, Cranmer.

THE REFORMATION, (i.e. the establishment of Protestantism in place of Roman Catholicism), commenced in Germany in 1517, when Luther published his 95 propositions.

Hy. wrote against Luther a "*Defence of the Seven Sacraments*," in Latin, 1521,—and was rewarded by Leo X. with the title

"*Fidei Defensor*," (—*Defender of the Faith*),—whence the F.D. on our coinage.

THE REFORMATION IN ENGLAND.

The development and completion of the Reformation form the main feature of the Tudor Period.

The commencement of this revolution dates much further back than the reign of Hy. VIII.

There had long been opposition to the impudent pretensions of the Church, and *Papal Supremacy* had received heavy blows from such statutes as that of *Præmunire*, and that limiting Benefit of Clergy.

The change in *religion* had been inaugurated by Wycliffe. His doctrines had, at first, spread rapidly; but the convulsion caused by the Wars of the Roses seriously retarded their progress,—otherwise it is more than probable that

the Reformation, as far as the national faith was concerned, would have been completed in England before the Tudors.

But, though retarded, the reformed religion was not crushed. During the reign of Hy. VII. it had made considerable progress, and from the beginning of the 16th century, London, the great centre of intellectual activity, was hostile to the Popish clergy.

At the Accession of Henry VIII. there were, besides the existence of a "leaven of Lollardism" amongst the people, two influences at work preparing the way for the mighty revolution soon to be effected:—

1. A deep and ever-increasing disgust with the tyranny of Rome, and the immunities, pride, rapacity, luxury, and immorality of the clergy generally.

2. A spirit of inquiry,—resulting from the spread of knowledge, (consequent upon the multiplication of printed books, and the Revival of Learning), and from the increased intercourse between European states.

The Reformation during this reign presents two aspects, —a religious and a political, each of which it will be best to treat separately.

Religious Progress.—The Reformation in Germany gave a mighty impetus and encouragement to Protestant doctrine in England.

The Translation of the Scriptures into English was, however, *the chief agency* by which the change of religion was advanced in this reign.

Tyndale's Translation of the New Testament, based chiefly on the Vulgate, was printed at Antwerp, 1526, and secretly conveyed to England. Its circulation caused intense alarm to the Romish party. All of the unsold edition was bought up at Antwerp by their agents, —search was made in London, and at the Universities, for copies,—and the books thus procured were burned, in Wolsey's presence, at Paul's Cross. This measure, however, only aided the spread of the Scriptures; for the money paid for the unsold copies afforded Tyndale the means of publishing the

2nd Edition, 1534, also printed abroad. The

3rd Edition, 1536, was published in England,—being *the first translation of the New Testament printed in this country.*

In 1534 Convocation requested Hy. to authorize an English Bible. As a result appeared

Coverdale's Bible, 1535,—by Coverdale, Tyndale, and Rogers,—the *first complete English printed Bible*,—dedicated to Hy.

Cromwell, by Hy.'s authority, ordered every clergyman to have a copy of C.'s Bible and a Latin version of the Scriptures placed in his church for the people's use, and allowed the sale of the English Bible, 1536.

Matthew's Bible, 1537,—edited by John Rogers, the Marian proto-martyr,—little more than a 2nd edition of Coverdale's. It contained marginal notes on the errors of Popery.

The Great Bible, (or *Cranmer's Bible*), 1539,—a revision of *Matthew's*, with a preface by Cranmer. From this is taken the version of the Psalms found in the Book of Common Prayer.

Taverner's Bible, 1539,—an almost new translation,—by Rd. Taverner, an Oxford scholar.

In 1538 the order to set up a copy of the English Bible in every church was renewed, and in 1541 again repeated, (the *Great Bible* being the one prescribed), with a penalty, in case of non-compliance, of 40s. monthly until carried out.

In 1543 Hy. forbade the sale of Tyndale's "false translation," and the reading of the Bible by tradesmen, apprentices, yeomen, labourers, and women,—and rescinded the order to place a Great Bible in every church.

This was owing to Gardiner's influence.

Service-Books, &c.—At Hy.'s accession the following *parts of the public service* were in *English*:—

1. The Exhortation and Confession in the Communion.
2. The Creed, Lord's Prayer, and Ten Commandments,—frequently expounded from the pulpit.
3. Parts of the "Occasional Offices."

1516. The *Sarum Breviary* was revised.

1533. New edition of *Sarum Missal*.

1535. *Marshall's Primer*, 2nd edition, appeared,—without authority.

1536. The Epistles and Gospels appeared in English.

Royal Injunction, explaining the use of images, rites and ceremonies, and the honour to be paid to saints,—curtailing holidays and pilgrimages,—and directing the clergy

to explain to the people the Creed, Lord's Prayer, and Ten Commandments.

Ten Articles of Religion set forth by Convocation, with Royal authority.

1537. *The Institution of a Christian Man*, or the *Bishop's Book*,—a book of doctrine, leaning to the Reformed Faith,—published by Cranmer's influence, with Royal authority.

1539. *Bp. Hilsey's Primer*, published,—by command of Cromwell.

1541. Cranmer proposed in Convocation that the existing Service-Books should be reformed, by omitting the names of the Pope and Thomas à Becket, &c.

1542. Convocation ordered that every Sunday and holiday, after *Te Deum* and *Magnificat*, there should be read in English a chapter from the New Testament, and that, the New being completed, the Old should be read in like manner.

Hy. requested Convocation to appoint a committee to examine and reform the existing Service-Books. The committee was appointed; but its deliberations issued in no tangible result.

1543. *A Necessary Doctrine and Erudition for any Christian Man*, or the *King's Book*,—a manual of doctrine, leaning to Romanism,—published by Gardiner's influence, with the Royal authority.

1544. The *Litany* revised and set forth, in English, by Cranmer, with Royal authority,—the chief change from the Papist Litany being the omission of a long list of saints' names.

1545. *The King's Primer*,—in English,—containing Matins, Evensong, Compline, the Litany, Lord's Prayer, Ten Commandments, Creed, &c.

Political Progress.

In 1531 Hy. instructed the Attorney-General to prosecute the whole of the clergy for *Præmunire*, incurred by their acknowledging the authority of Wolsey's Legatine Court. Convocation pleaded guilty,—condoned for the offence by paying Hy. £119,000,—and were compelled to sign a declaration that the King was "*Supreme Head of the Church and Clergy of England*."

This was the first blow, (and a heavy one), dealt by Hy. at the power of the Pope.

In 1532 Parliament gave to Hy. the option of allowing, or refusing, the payment of

Annates, or First-Fruits,—i.e. a year's income of his see, paid to the Pope by every bishop, on his preferment. It was enacted, also, that any Papal censure passed in consequence of this Act should not be heeded.

In 1533 an Act was passed forbidding appeals to Rome in causes of matrimony, divorce, and all suits of which the Ecclesiastical Courts took cognizance.

Hitherto Hy.'s measures seem to have been intended rather to awe the Pope, and to punish him to some extent for his refusal to grant the divorce: a perfect severance from Rome does not appear to have been contemplated by him. But when, in 1533, Clement declared Cranmer's judgment illegal, and threatened Hy. with excommunication if he abode by it, the King, seeing no hope of reconciliation between him and the Pope, determined to complete the work he had begun, and assure his own supremacy in the Church.

IN 1534 THE FINAL SEPARATION OF THE ENGLISH CHURCH FROM ROME TOOK PLACE.

Acts were passed by which

1. *Annates* were henceforth to be paid to the monarch, instead of the Pope.

2. *Peter's Pence*, and all other payments to Rome, were abolished.

3. Monasteries were to be visited, and governed by the King.

4. Bishops were to be appointed by royal authority.

5. Ecclesiastical licences and dispensations were to be granted by the archbishops.

6. The statutes of *Provisors* and *Premunire* were re-enforced.

7. Hy. was declared "Supreme Head on earth, next under Christ, of the English Church," and declared to have the power to "visit, repress, redress, reform, order, correct, restrain, and amend all errors, heresies, abuses, contempts, and enormities," falling under any spiritual authority or jurisdiction.

8. All refusing to acknowledge Hy. as Supreme Head of the Church were to be guilty of treason.

Convocation promised not to meet, or pass any canon, without Hy.'s authority.

In 1535 Pope Paul III., who had succeeded Clement, felt the injuries done by Hy. to Rome culminate in the execution of Fisher: consequently he drew up a Bull of Interdict and Deposition. It was suspended, through the influence of the French King, until 1538, when, in consequence of the suppression of the monasteries, it was published,—but to nobody's hurt!

Hy.'s next act was to *dissolve the religious houses*. His motives in taking this step appear to have been

1. The carrying out of his purpose of utterly destroying the Pope's power, of which the members of these institutions were ardent supporters, preaching against Hy.'s supremacy, and sowing sedition throughout the country.

2. To get possession of the property belonging to these bodies.

The reports current of the evil lives led in the monasteries and convents supplied a colourable ground for their suppression.

Under the superintendence of Cromwell, commissioners visited the houses, and reported upon their conduct. The result was embodied in a *Black Book*, which was presented to the Commons, 1536, and whose pages were a long and horrifying record of vice and immorality practised in the majority of these retreats.

A pretext for their abolition having been thus laid before it, Parliament proceeded to the

Suppression of the Lesser Monasteries, (having an income below £200 per annum), 1536.—There were thus despoiled 376 houses, whose joint revenue was £32,000 per annum, and whose furniture and effects were worth at least £100,000.

The smaller institutions were dealt with first, *nominally* because they had been found the most depraved,—*really* because they embraced the so-called Mendicant Friars, who, journeying all over the country, were most active in stirring up discontent.

The monks having been very busy in the *Pilgrimage of Grace*, Hy. proceeded, after the collapse of that rising, to the

Suppression of the Larger Monasteries, 1539-40.—Most of the heads of houses were induced, by the hope of obtaining favourable terms, to give them up of their own accord,—while those that refused to yield were uncere-

moniously expelled, and not a few, (e.g. the abbots of Colchester, Reading, and Glastonbury), were executed. The larger monasteries thus dissolved numbered over 500.

In 1545, Parliament further granted Hy. all chapels, hospitals, and colleges, (excepting those of the Universities), belonging to religious houses, throughout the country,—the result being the destruction of 90 colleges, 2374 chapels, and 110 hospitals, and the confiscation of their property.

Amidst this wholesale destruction, Henry displayed peculiar animosity towards Thomas à Becket. Not only was his rich shrine at Canterbury plundered and destroyed, but his bones were burned, and the ashes thrown into the air, and his festival was abolished. This bitter hatred of the King to the great Churchman probably arose from the fact that the latter had been a most zealous agent of the Pope's in fixing the chains of Rome upon England, and greatly resembled the now detested Wolsey in character and policy.

The total revenue of the houses destroyed was nearly £2,000,000 of our money,—being four-sevenths of the entire possessions of the Church.

The property thus obtained was employed in the following manner :—

1. The heads of the dissolved houses were pensioned.
2. Six new bishoprics,—those of Westminster, Oxford, Peterborough, Bristol, Chester, and Gloucester, were endowed.
3. Trinity College, Cambridge, and several schools and hospitals were founded.
4. Dover Harbour was improved, the defences of the South Coast strengthened, and other public works carried out.
5. Large grants of land and tithes were made to favourites, or sold at a low figure to others of the nobility and gentry,—this being the origin of *lay impropriators*.

The Dissolution of Monasteries, although it caused present want, and a truly lamentable and irreparable national loss in the destruction of the monastic libraries, was a most beneficial measure, for

1. It was the means of supporting Protestantism under Mary, for the new owners of the church lands naturally opposed the return to a religion under which they would have to restore their possessions.

2. The new proprietors, setting to work to improve, and profit by, possessions which had lain almost idle in the hands of the Church, gave a considerable impetus to national industry and traffic.

Hy's share in the Reformation was undoubtedly great.

By destroying the Pope's power in England, he cleared the way for the rapid advance of Protestantism, and so *hastened on the great change in the national faith*, which must have come eventually, but which would have been long delayed but for the King's fortunate rupture with Rome.

But it must be remembered that

1. His share in the revolution was almost entirely political.

2. No credit is due to Hy. for the part he took in it, since his quarrel with Rome, and consequent schism, arose, not from conscientious conviction, but merely from being thwarted by the Pope in his efforts to obtain a divorce.

The King's religious tenets underwent no change. His devotion to Romanism never swerved, and he desired, and strove, to retain it as the national religion.

But his action in this particular was not uniform, owing to the fact that he was swayed in turns by the diverse counsels of his ministers. Cranmer and Cromwell, while appearing to conform to Romanism, were really Protestants, and with infinite tact exercised their influence with the King to obtain toleration and assistance for the reformed faith: the Duke of Norfolk, and Gardiner, keen Papists, exerted themselves to induce him to rigorous treatment of the so-called heretics,—and thus Hy.'s policy fluctuated according as the one or the other party happened to possess for the time his private ear, and presents a strangely anomalous alternation of toleration and persecution.

The religious measures favourable to the Reformation which received Hy.'s sanction have been already noticed under "*Religious Progress*." The following are the chief steps taken by him *against* it:—

Parliament, at the King's express desire, passed the

Law of the Six Articles, (called by Protestants the **Bloody Statute**), 1539, "for abolishing diversity of opinion in certain articles concerning the Christian religion."

It insisted upon

1. The doctrine of Transubstantiation.
2. Communion of the laity in one kind only.
3. Celibacy of the clergy.
4. Vows of continence being kept.
5. Private masses being effectual.
6. Auricular confession being necessary.

Those denying Article I. were to be burned; any one denying any of the remainder to suffer loss of property for a first offence, and death for a second.

Cranmer spoke against the Act; but, when it was passed, submitted, and separated from his wife.

This statute was put into speedy and effectual force: 500 persons were almost immediately imprisoned for denying its articles,—amongst them being Bps. Latimer and Shaxton, who were also compelled to give up their sees.

But Cranmer, Cromwell, Suffolk, and others, exerting their influence in turn, Hy. released the whole of the offenders.

Upon Hy.'s marriage with Catherine Howard, the Papist party were again in the ascendant, and the *Six Articles* were put into action against the Protestants with fearful rigour.

Two years after ordering, under penalty, a Bible to be placed in every church, an Act was passed condemning Tyndale's version, and forbidding all but persons of rank and station to read the Scriptures.

Hy.'s pet doctrine was Transubstantiation, and he never spared any one who denied it. For thus offending, *Lambert*, a schoolmaster of London, was *burned* in 1538, and *Anne Ascue*, a young Lincolnshire lady, of great beauty and intelligence, *racked, and burned*, in 1546.

While Hy. persecuted the Protestants, he punished with equal rigour all Roman Catholics who denied his supremacy: thus he burnt, "as heretics, those who avowed the tenets of Luther," and hanged, "as traitors, those who owned the authority of the Pope." Frequently, indeed, Protestants and Papists suffered in company.

It is computed that 72,000 persons were executed in this reign for various offences.

VARIOUS MATTERS.

The Gipsies first came to England early in this reign. Empson and Dudley executed, 1510.—On Hy.'s accession these unpopular instruments of his father's extortions were imprisoned in the Tower,—tried upon a ridiculous charge of having intended, at Hy. VII.'s death, to seize upon the Government,—found guilty,—attainted,—and beheaded, Hy., anxious to win popularity, leaving them to their fate.

Wales incorporated with England, 1536.

There existed in Wales 141 independent lords, or *marchers*, within whose lordships the King had no jurisdiction; in consequence, justice was badly administered, and robbery and violence were rife.

To put an end to this state of things, an Act was passed providing that

1. All Wales should be incorporated with England.
2. The Welsh should have the same laws and rights as the rest of the King's subjects.
3. Gavelkind, (*i.e.* the practice of dividing a man's lands, at his death, amongst all the males of his family), should cease.
4. The separate lordships should be annexed to the nearest counties.
5. No marcher should have power to pardon any treason, murder, or felony, committed within his lordship.
6. That each Welsh shire, and one borough in each, should send one member to Parliament.

Monmouthshire was separated from Wales in this reign, leaving to that country twelve counties, which, with the towns, henceforth sent twenty-four members to the Commons.

Hy. was the first English monarch to assume the titles of "Highness" and "Majesty."

Henry's Continental Relations and Policy.

Under Hy. VII. commenced "the political system of Europe," *i.e.* "that series of wars and negotiations among its different kingdoms which has continued to the present day,"—Chas. VIII. of France being the first to upset the existing relation of States, by invading Italy.

Hy., however, as has been said before, did not take an

active part in continental politics; but Hy. VIII., influenced by personal and national ambition, threw himself heartily into them.

His policy, however, constantly fluctuated with his own interests, or those of Wolsey, (while the Cardinal's administration lasted).

His reign commenced with a French war, into which he was naturally led by the Pope's influence, and the national animosity against France.

Soon after the conclusion of peace, Francis I. ascended the throne, at the age of 21. He set himself to secure the friendship of Hy., and succeeded in his object by conciliating and bribing Wolsey.

In 1519 Maximilian died, and there presented themselves for the Emperorship three candidates,—Francis, Chas. I. of Spain, (who, besides that country, ruled the Netherlands, Naples, and the New World), and Hy., who, however, finding that he had entered the field too late, soon withdrew, leaving Francis and Chas. to contend for the post.

The latter was elected, and thus became Chas V. of Germany.

Henceforth there was constant strife between him and Francis, and each naturally courted the alliance of Hy.,—the resources of England, and her natural situation qualifying her to hold the balance of power between the two monarchs.

Francis, trusting to his personal powers of persuasion, urged Hy. to meet him near Calais. Hy. consented, and Wolsey was appointed to make the needful arrangements.

The King of England crossed the Channel with his Queen and Court, met Francis at a spot between Guisnes and Ardres, on English ground, (an honour cunningly obtained by Wolsey for Hy. on the plea that he had taken the trouble to cross the sea for the interview).

The English and French Court and nobles made such a magnificent display of dress and equipages that the meeting was called the

Field of the Cloth of Gold, 1520.—It lasted three weeks, which were occupied in tournaments, festivals, and Court ceremonies. Before parting, however, it was agreed that the Dauphin should marry Mary, Hy.'s daughter, and that, should their issue succeed to the crown of England,

France should pay England 100,000 crowns yearly for ever.

Francis departed from the conference believing that he had succeeded with Hy., but he was totally mistaken.

As soon as Chas. had heard of the projected meeting, he touched England on his way from Spain to the Netherlands, and was met by Hy. and the Queen, at Hythe. By holding out to Hy. the prospect of recovering the provinces in France that had formerly belonged to England,—and to Wolsey the vision of succeeding to the *tiara*, he so wrought upon the King and his minister, that, when they met Francis, their minds were already made up in the Emperor's favour, and consequently their cordiality towards the French King was assumed, and the treaty made was not intended to be binding.

Immediately after the *Field of the Cloth of Gold*, Hy. went to see Chas. at Gravelines, and took him back to Calais on a visit. The Emperor here strengthened his hold on Hy., and completely won over Wolsey by conferring on him the revenues of two Spanish bishoprics, besides renewing the promise of the Popedom.

The result of these negotiations between Hy. and Chas. was seen in the immoderate demands made by the Emperor at the Calais Congress, and in the consequent league concluded between him, Hy., and the Pope, against Francis.

In 1521 Leo X. died, and Adrian VI. was elected to the Papal chair. Chas., to conciliate Wolsey under his disappointment, re-visited England in 1522, and succeeded in retaining his good offices, by a promise of his certainly filling the next vacancy at the Vatican.

In 1523, however, Adrian died, and Wolsey was again passed over in favour of Clement VII. Realising at length the hollowness of Charles's promises, the great Cardinal henceforth used his influence to detach Hy. from the Emperor, and to ally him with Francis. His efforts finally resulted in the peace that closed the *Second French War*.

Francis was released by Chas. in 1526, on condition that he should cede Burgundy, and abandon all claim to Naples, Milan, and the sovereignty of Flanders, which, when he had recovered his liberty, he refused to do. In this determination he was upheld by Hy. War between Chas. and France was accordingly renewed.

The bonds between the two monarchs were strengthened

by the treaty into which they entered after the sack of Rome, and by Hy.'s quarrel with Chas. and the Pope, (in consequence of the divorce), which led him to seek a closer alliance with the French monarch. For this end he crossed the Channel, and, at Boulogne and Calais, entered with him into fresh pledges of mutual friendship and aid.

On the death of Catherine, in 1536, Chas., who was then engaged in a deadly struggle with Francis, made overtures to Hy., which he rejected.

In 1537, however, the Pope, with a view to crushing Hy., having brought about a close alliance between the Emperor and Francis, the friendship of the latter with Hy. cooled.

The aid given by Francis to Scotland finally detached Hy. from the French King,—he allied with Chas., (who had broken with Francis),—and the *Third French War* followed.

The conclusion of Hy.'s reign left him at peace with the Emperor and with France.

NAVAL AFFAIRS, AND COMMERCE.

Hy. was the "creator of the English navy."

To the *Great Harry* he added, first the *Lion*, captured from Barton,—then the *Regent*, of 1,000 tons, built at Woolwich,—and other vessels, until, at the end of his reign, the navy could boast 58 ships, of 12,000 tons aggregate burden, and manned by 8,000 men.

Up to this time vessels for war purposes had been partly provided by the Cinque Ports, and partly borrowed from English and foreign merchants.

Hy. was the last English monarch that hired foreign ships.

He also established the first Navy office, presided over by the chief officers,—the **Corporation of Trinity-House**, and smaller institutions of the same kind at Hull and Newcastle, for licensing and ordering pilots, and placing beacons and buoys,—and the dockyards and stores at Woolwich and Deptford.

The Cod Fishery in Newfoundland originated, 1536.

Several Commercial Treaties were made with France and Spain.

SCOTCH AFFAIRS.

FIRST WAR WITH ENGLAND, 1513-1514.

Origin.—Though James IV. was Hy.'s brother-in-law, he preserved the old alliance of Scotland with France, and was induced by Louis, during the first French war, to declare war against England, on three pretexts:—

1. That the jewels bequeathed to Margaret, by her father Hy. VII., had not been handed over to her.

2. That Sir Andrew Barton, one of Jas.'s naval commanders, (and, in reality, a pirate), had been attacked in the Downs by an English fleet,—slain,—and his flag-ship, the *Lion*, captured.

The cause of this act on the part of Thomas Howard, the English admiral, was that, during a war between Scotland and Portugal, Barton had spoiled a number of English vessels,—pretending that they were carrying Portuguese goods.

3. That Ker, the warden of the Scotch border, had been assassinated, and his murderers not punished.

Events.—A fleet of 23 ships was equipped for a descent on Ireland; but it was defeated and dispersed.

Jas., taking advantage of Hy.'s absence in France, crossed the border, with 100,000 men and 60 guns, and took some border fortresses.

The Earl of Surrey advanced to meet him, with 26,000 men, and fought the

Battle of Flodden, 1513.—English gained great victory.

English commanders.—Earl of Surrey, Lord Howard, Sir Edward Stanley, and Lord Dacre.

Scotch com.—Jas. IV., Lords Huntly and Home, and Earls Lennox and Argyle.

Jas. was posted in a strong position, on Flodden Hill, in Northumberland, behind the Till. From some inexplicable motive he made the fatal mistake of allowing Surrey to cross the bridge over the Till without opposition. The English general, wisely declining an attack on the front of the strongly-entrenched enemy, outflanked them, and thus compelled Jas. to descend from the hill, and commence action.

The battle was fiercely contested from 4 p.m. until night, and issued in a crushing defeat of the Scotch, with

the loss of their King, 1 archbishop, 2 bishops, 27 noblemen, 400 knights and gentlemen, and 10,000 rank and file. The English lost at least 500 men.

This defeat was "the greatest national misfortune ever experienced by Scotland."

The Earl of Surrey was rewarded with the dukedom of Norfolk, and his son, Lord Howard, became Earl of Surrey.

The English forces were soon after disbanded, and no further military operations were undertaken on either side.

The new King, Jas. V., was now only three years old : he was placed by Parliament under the guardianship of his mother, who was appointed Regent. Soon after her husband's death she married Archibald Douglas, Earl of Angus, a handsome, young, and accomplished, but weak-minded nobleman.

Peace was concluded with England, 1514, by the treaty which ended the *First French War*.

For the next thirteen years, until Jas. V. assumed the government, Scotland was a prey to anarchy, in consequence of the feuds of the leading nobles. Of this state of things Hy. took advantage, and, through the agency of Lord Dacre, the warden of the English border, maintained, chiefly by bribery, a strong party in the state, favourable to England, to which Margaret at first belonged.

The French party, at the head of which stood Beaton, Archbp. of Glasgow, mistrusting Margaret, secretly sent to France to invite the Duke of Albany to come over, and assume the regency. He complied. At first there was the deadliest enmity between him and the Queen-dowager, and she refused to give up the young king to his care ; but, her husband deserting her, she became reconciled to Albany, and resigned Jas. to his guardianship.

SECOND WAR WITH ENGLAND, 1522-1532.

Cause.—Dacre having written to Hy., representing that Albany was aiming at the throne, and that Jas. was not safe in his custody, Hy. sent a messenger to Scotland to demand of the nobles the dismissal of Albany from the country. They returned a spirited refusal. Hy. declared war.

Events.—In 1522 the Earl of Shrewsbury crossed the border, and an English fleet ravaged the E. coast. Albany,

at the head of 45,000 men, invaded the N. of England; but was deluded by Lord Dacre into a truce, and immediately went to France to seek advice and aid.

He returned with 87 ships, and 6,000 foreign mercenaries, whose presence in the country was generally unpopular. The discontent thus caused was not, however, openly shewn, until, assembling an army of 80,000 men, Albany started to invade England. On reaching Melrose, officers and soldiers refused to advance further,—news arrived that Surrey was marching against them,—and Albany, not caring to await him with a mutinous force, disbanded his troops, and again retired to France, ostensibly to consult with Francis, but really with a determination, (to which he adhered), never to return.

On his departure, the Earl of Arran, and Margaret, obtained possession of Jas. V., then in his 13th year, took him to Edinburgh, and announced to the Council that he would henceforth govern in his own name. Being privately supported by Hy., they were able for some time to hold their ground; but Henry, becoming suspicious of Margaret's allegiance, induced Angus, whom Albany had driven into France, to return to Scotland, and there support the English interests.

Beaton and Angus coalesced,—and Arran deserted Margaret, leaving her powerless. She was consequently easily induced to give up the custody of Jas., and be reconciled to her husband, Angus, whose party, after a feeble resistance, Arran joined.

Angus, now supreme in Scotland, concluded with England a truce for three years in 1523.

In 1526, Parliament declaring Jas.'s minority at an end, he assumed the government; but was really a mere tool in the hands of Angus, who, having entered into still closer alliance with Hy., ruled at his own will, keeping Jas. in a state of captivity at Falkland.

After two years Jas. regained his liberty, by stratagem, and Angus was driven into England.

Hy. now proposed an alliance by marriage between England and Scotland; but Jas. refused to entertain it. In revenge, the King of England entered into an agreement with Angus and the Earl of Bothwell to aid them to dethrone Jas., on condition of his succeeding him.

A fierce border warfare succeeded. The English cr

not effect any advance into the country, owing to Jas.'s wise measures of defence; but the terrible devastation and wretchedness, caused by the war, led him to desire, and treat for, peace, which was concluded 1532.

Terms.—1. Angus, and the other Douglasses, (i.e. his brother and his uncle), to remain in England, unmolested, as subjects of Hy., on condition of their delivering up Edrington Castle, the only place they still held in Scotland.

2. Reparation to be made for any damage done by Hy. and the Douglasses in any expedition they might hereafter undertake against Scotland.

3. The peace to last during the joint lives of Hy. and Jas., and one year after the decease of either of them.

Jas. was now invested with the order of the Garter.

THIRD WAR WITH ENGLAND, 1542-1546.

Origin.—Misunderstandings between Hy. and Jas. commenced shortly after the last peace, and had been festering ever since.

Jas. had given offence to Hy. in the following particulars :—

1. Hy. had urged him to throw off the Papal yoke : he refused, and allied himself closely to Rome, (for which the Pope conferred on him the title *Fidei Defensor*, formerly given to the King of England).

2. When, in 1537, the friendship between Hy. and Francis was dissolved, in consequence of the League between the latter and the Emperor, the King of France succeeded in enlisting the sympathies of Jas., who, having married, for his first wife, a daughter of Francis, and having stayed at his Court for nine months after that union, had naturally a leaning towards France. Having lost his first wife, he now cemented his union with Francis by marrying another French princess, Mary of Guise.

Jas. had thus accepted the alliance of the Pope and Francis, two of Hy.'s bitterest enemies.

Hy., on the other hand, had roused Jas.'s indignation by—

1. His overbearing and insolent manner of treating him.

2. Taking advantage of his absence in France to send a wily agent into Scotland to corrupt the nobles, attach Margaret to his interests, and excite the people against Rome.

The immediate cause of the war was that, Hy. having urged his nephew to throw off the dominion of the Pope, it was mutually arranged that they should meet at York to discuss the matter. Hy. journeyed thither, but Jas., influenced by Cardinal Beaton, the head of the Roman Catholic party, whose policy was war with England, failed to keep the appointment. Hy. thereupon declared war, and published a proclamation, laying claim to the Scotch crown.

Events.—An English army, under *Sir Jas. Bowes*, accompanied by the Douglasses, crossed the border, but were defeated at

Halydon Rigg, (in Roxburgh), **1542**, by Lords Huntly and Home. Bowes and several other gentlemen were captured.

The Duke of Norfolk now crossed the Tweed, and Jas., after vain attempts to negotiate, prepared to meet him.

Having assembled 30,000 men, he advanced,—and Norfolk, in want of supplies, retreated.

Jas. now ordered the army to cross the borders and invade England. The nobles, amongst whom there was a general disaffection, owing principally to the king's stern treatment of them, refused to move, and Jas. was compelled to disband his forces and return to the capital.

Having succeeded, by the aid of a few faithful nobles and the clergy, in raising 10,000 men, he despatched them on an invasion of England, himself remaining near the border, deeply anxious as to the result.

Distrusting, however, the nobles at the head of the expedition, he privately gave a commission to his favorite, *Oliver Sinclair*, to assume the command as soon as the army should reach the Esk. When that point was gained, Sinclair presented himself in camp, and produced his commission. The army was instantly thrown into wild and mutinous disorder. Three hundred English cavalry, under *Sir Thos. Wharton*, having approached to reconnoitre, discovered the state of affairs, and daringly attacked the whole Scotch host at

Solway Moss, 1542.—English completely victorious,—the Scotch fleeing in panic, with the loss of their artillery, and 1,000 prisoners, amongst whom were some of the leading nobles.

This engagement is sometimes called the **Rout of Solway**.

Jas., on hearing of this second disaster, was broken-hearted. The disgrace of the defeat, and the idea that his nobles intended to betray the crown to Hy., preyed upon his mind. He retired to Falkland, and sank into low fever and melancholy. While in this state his wife gave birth to a daughter, *Mary, Queen of Scots*. Jas. had ardently hoped for a son,—the disappointment was a crowning blow, and he expired a few days after Mary's birth.

After the death of Jas., Beaton produced a will by which the late king had appointed him governor of Scotland, and guardian of Mary. This was, however, set aside, and Arran, the head of the reforming and anti-French party, was made Regent, and custodian of the infant Queen.

Meanwhile Hy., who had set his mind on marrying Prince Edward to Mary, had agreed with the Douglasses, and some of the nobles captured at Solway, that they should return to Scotland, on condition that they should endeavour to obtain for him the government of the country, and possession of the fortresses and of Mary,—and that, if Parliament refused these demands, they should aid Hy. in conquering Scotland.

They returned, and at once took decided measures. Beaton was imprisoned, and a Parliament held, which pronounced in favour of the marriage, to which, also, Arran, being in Hy.'s interest, consented.

Hy., however, with his usual headstrong violence, was dissatisfied with what he considered the slow and partial fulfilment of the programme between himself and the nobles. He reproached them for not having delivered up the fortresses, and expressed his anger because Parliament, while agreeing to the marriage, insisted that Scotland should remain a distinct kingdom.

These outrageous proceedings considerably opened the eyes of the people to Hy.'s sweeping and treacherous designs, and strengthened the influence of the French party.

Accordingly, Beaton, when, soon after, he regained his liberty, found himself in the ascendant. By his advice an embassy was sent to Hy., to explain distinctly on what conditions Scotland would consent to the marriage. The King, in his rage, let out all his schemes, declaring that the government of Scotland and the custody of the Queen rightfully belonged to him as Lord Paramount of the country.

The effect of this was a general feeling of indignation throughout Scotland, and a union between Beaton and Arran.

By the influence of the Douglasses, Hy. was induced ostensibly to withdraw the most violent of his demands,—Arran, and the nobles that followed him, deserted Beaton, held a convention amongst themselves, and concluded the treaty of marriage.

Beaton, however, got possession of Mary, and refused to sanction the betrothal, and Arran, after various intrigues with Hy. against the Cardinal, again joined the latter. Hy. thereupon resumed warlike operations.

In 1543 an English fleet of 100 ships, under *Lord Lisle*, sailed to the Forth, and landed a force that took, and sacked, Edinburgh and Leith, and ravaged the surrounding country.

Earls Lennox and Glencairn, who had sold themselves to Hy., and had led an expedition into the centre of the country, were now compelled by Arran to lay down their arms, Lennox fleeing to England.

In 1544 *Sir Ralph Eure* and *Sir Bryan Layton*, having procured from Hy. a grant of all the estates of Angus, (with whom he had now quarrelled), that they could conquer, advanced to Melrose at the head of 5,000 men, ravaged the country, and despoiled Melrose Abbey, disfiguring the tombs of the Douglasses which it contained. Angus attacked them on their return, at

Ancrum Moor, and defeated them with a loss of 800 killed, (amongst whom were Eure and Layton), and 1,000 prisoners.

Beaton, encouraged by this victory, and by a promise of French aid, held a convention of nobles at Edinburgh, which declared the marriage treaty with Hy. null and void, and determined to resist all further advances he might make.

A French fleet now arrived, bringing 3,000 men, and a Scotch army was assembled to invade England. The leaders, however, were, as usual, at variance, and it retreated after some feeble operations.

The *Earl of Hertford*, at the head of an immense English force, now crossed the border, and, in 1544-5, inflicted such fearful devastation as, according to his own statement to Hy., Scotland had not seen for 300 years.

He burned 7 monasteries, 21 towns and fortresses, 243 villages, 13 mills, and 3 hospitals.

Peace was concluded, 1546, by the treaty that ended the third French war, Beaton, the great enemy of England, having been murdered in the Castle of St. Andrew, a few days previously, by a band of fanatics, who are said to have been in Hy.'s pay. Whether this be true or not, there is abundant evidence that Hy. repeatedly plotted the assassination of the Cardinal.

IRISH AFFAIRS.

On Kildare's death, his son, Gerald, continued the war with the Irish chieftains, which his father had undertaken. Wolsey, distrusting his intentions, summoned him to the English Court, where he remained until the Cardinal's disgrace, when he returned to Ireland, and resumed the Government. He found that, during his absence, the limits of the Pale had again become reduced to about the same limits as at Hy. VII.'s accession.

Having allied himself by marriage with some of the hostile Irish chiefs, he was suspected of traitorous designs, recalled to England, and imprisoned in the Tower.

His son, Lord Thomas Fitzgerald, who was only 20 years old, was entrusted with the government, by his father, on leaving for England.

The enemies of his house, anxious for his ruin, goaded him into

Rebellion, 1534, by a false report that his father had been beheaded in England, and that orders had been issued for his own arrest on a charge of treason.

Entering St. Mary's Abbey, where the Council of State was sitting, he gave up his sword of office, and renounced his fealty to Hy.

The rebellion grew into a civil war amongst the various chiefs, to the horrors of which were added those of a general pestilence.

Kildare died in the Tower of grief at the conduct of his son, who, after an unsuccessful **Siege of Dublin Castle**, was compelled to surrender to *Lord Gray*, the newly-appointed Viceroy, at Maynooth, and, together with five of his uncles, who were arrested by treachery, was executed in London, 1535, and his estates forfeited.

A plot, at the head of which was O'Niel, a great chief-

tain of the North, was now entered into to restore Gerald, a younger brother of Fitzgerald, to the Kildare estates. It was discovered, and Lord Gray, the Governor, beheaded for complicity in it.

Hy. now turned his attention to destroying the Pope's supremacy in Ireland. To effect this, he took three important steps, by the aid of a Parliament from which he had carefully excluded all that would prove hostile to his designs :—

1. **Annates**, and all other dues, hitherto paid to Rome, were transferred to Hy.

2. The religious houses were suppressed.

These measures caused insurrections, (the chief one being headed by O'Niel), which were easily put down.

3. **Ireland was erected into a Kingdom, and Hy. declared its King, 1541.**

Hitherto the Pope had been regarded as the sovereign of Ireland, and the English monarchs had been styled only "Lords" of the country.

This last measure had considerable influence in reducing the country to the royal authority.

To attach the Anglo-Irish, and wild Irish, chiefs to himself, and to reconcile them to the measures taken against Rome, Hy. invited numbers of them over to England, and conferred peerages upon them, (O'Donnel, uncle of young Gerald, being made Earl of Tyrconnel, and O'Niel, Earl of Tyrone),—presented the new peers with parliamentary robes,—gave them each a house and grounds near Dublin, to accommodate them when in attendance on Parliament,—and made them large grants of the sequestrated monastic lands.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS.

Scotland.	France.	Germany.	Spain.
JAMES IV.	LOUIS XII.	MAXIMILIAN I.	FERDINAND V.
JAMES V.	FRANCIS I.	CHARLES V.,	CHARLES I.
MARY.		(I. OF SPAIN.)	

Popes.

JULIUS II.	CLEMENT VII.
LEO X.	PAUL III.
ADRIAN VI.	

EDWARD VI.

Dates.—1537, (at Hampton Court);—Jan. 28, 1547;—July 6, 1553, (of consumption, aggravated by improper treatment), in his 16th year. Reigned $6\frac{2}{3}$ years.

With Ed. it became the rule to date the accession of the English sovereigns on the day of their predecessor's demise.

Descent.—Son of Hy. VIII., by Jane Seymour. His education was entrusted to Sir John Cheke and Dr. Cooke, and under their tuition he became precociously learned.

Marriage.—*None.*

Claim.—*Good*, for

1. He was the next heir.
2. Parliament, by the Act of Settlement of 1544, had, at Hy.'s desire, settled the crown upon Ed.

3. Parliament having given him power to regulate the succession, Hy. had, in his will, confirmed the Act of Settlement.

Character.—Amiable and pious,—a youth of great promise.

The persecutions and executions which he sanctioned are a stain on his character, though his conduct in this respect admits of palliation, from the fact that he was always under the powerful influence of his ministers.

WARS.

1. With Scotland.—(See "*Scotch Affairs.*")

2. With France, 1548-50.

Origin.—The encouragement and aid afforded to Scotland, against England.

Events.—The only incident of any importance, besides the operations of the French auxiliaries in Scotland, was an unsuccessful attempt by the King of France to recover Boulogne. Peace was concluded 1550.

Terms.—Boulogne to be immediately restored to France, on payment of 400,000 crowns,—half ready money, and the rest in five months.

REBELLIONS.

1. In Cornwall and Devon, 1549.

Origin.—General discontent amongst the middle and lower classes, owing to—

1. Recent changes in religion,—the chief source of *this* rebellion.

2. Widely-extended distress and poverty, arising from—

(1.) The suppression of monasteries, (as explained under last reign).

(2.) The enclosure, by new proprietors, of common-lands, on which the people had hitherto fed their cattle and sheep.

(3.) The rise in price of all necessities,—originating in

a. The increase of gold and silver, consequent upon the discovery of America.

b. The conversion of large tracts of corn-land into sheep-pasture,—a course adopted by new proprietors, because the wool-trade was highly remunerative, and because it effected a saving in farm-labour, and, consequently, in wages.

(4.) The low state of trade, caused by the insecurity consequent upon the shamefully-debased coinage introduced by Hy. VIII., and Somerset.

Object.—*Generally*, the redress of all the grievances flowing from the causes just mentioned,—*Specially*,

1. The resumption of the use of the Missal.

2. The re-enactment of the *Law of the Six Articles*.

3. The restoration of two monasteries, with their lands, in every county.

4. The admission of Cardinal Pole to the Council.

As many as 10,000 men rose, and formed themselves into an orderly army. *Lord Russell* marched against them with a small force; but was unsuccessful in his first operations.

The rebels then besieged Exeter, but were compelled by *Lord Russell*, at the head of a large force, to abandon the enterprise.

Russell and Grey now defeated them in several engagements, and compelled them to disperse. Large numbers of prisoners were taken, many of whom suffered summarily by martial law, while the leaders were formally tried and executed. The total insurgent loss in battle and by execution was upwards of 4,000.

2. In Norfolk, 1549.

Origin.—The same as that of the outbreak in Cornwall and Devon,—the chief source being the enclosures, and general oppression.

Object.—*Generally*, the redress of all grievances complained of,—*Specially*,

1. The repression of the tyranny and injustice exercised by the higher classes towards the middle and lower orders, particularly in enclosing common-land.

2. The dismissal by Ed. of his present ministers for councillors who would right the wrongs alleged.

Leader.—*Ket*, a wealthy tanner of Wymondham.

This insurrection was far more formidable than the preceding. Ket, with 20,000 followers, encamped near Norwich, and, under a tree called the "*Oak of Reformation*," tried, and sternly punished, those gentlemen who were accused of acts of oppression.

The *Marquis of Northampton* advanced against him, but was defeated and fled.

The *Earl of Warwick*, at the head of 8,000 men who had been levied for the Scotch war, then took the field. After several indecisive engagements, he at length utterly routed and dispersed the rebels at *Dussindale*, with a loss to them of 2,000 killed and numerous prisoners, amongst whom was Ket. He was hanged, at Norwich, and several other leaders, on the "*Oak of Reformation*:" the rest of the captives were pardoned.

(The disaffection was general in the centre and south, but these were the only two actual outbreaks, for, as soon as he learned the discontent that existed, Somerset sent out commissioners with power to restore the common-lands to their original purpose, and with instructions to inquire into the grievances of the people. By this wise measure he avoided a general rising.)

POLITICAL AFFAIRS.

Hy.'s will directed that Ed. should be of age at 18,—and that, meanwhile, the government should be vested in sixteen executors, amongst whom were Cranmer, Lord Wriothesley, the Chancellor, and Edward Seymour, Earl of Hertford, brother of Jane Seymour, and, consequently, uncle to Ed. The executors were to be assisted in their

deliberations by the advice of twelve counsellors, who, however, were to possess no ruling power.

The Council, on meeting, felt the need of a president, and, departing from Hy.'s directions, chose Hertford as Protector of the Kingdom, and Governor of the young King, believing that his relationship to Ed. would ensure his consulting the safety and welfare of his nephew.

In order to strengthen the power of the Government, the Council now insisted upon all public servants and bishops resigning their offices, and receiving, in Ed.'s name, fresh appointments to them, their new commissions distinctly declaring that they held their posts only during the pleasure of the Government,—while all ecclesiastical and political authority was vested in the Crown.

In fulfilment of an intention of Hy., a number of new peers were now created, and several noblemen advanced to higher titles. Hertford became Duke of Somerset, (with the addition of the offices of Marshal and Lord Treasurer),—Wriothesley, Earl of Southampton,—Viscount Lisle, (son of Hy. VII.'s notorious Dudley, and restored, by Hy. VIII., to his father's forfeited estates, with this new title), Earl of Warwick,—and Sir Thos. Seymour, (Lord High Admiral), Lord Seymour.

Somerset now began to manifest a determination to make himself supreme in the country. To get rid of Southampton, the head of the R. Catholic party, and his consistent opponent, Somerset accused him of employing the Great Seal on his own responsibility: he was fined, dismissed from the Council, and ordered to remain in his own house during the pleasure of the Government.

The Protector next, on the pretext that his appointment to office by the Counsellors was not a sufficiently powerful warrant, procured from Ed. letters-patent, revoking Hy.'s will,—appointing the same Council, (excepting Southampton), that his father had named,—and conferring on Somerset the Protectorship, with royal power, and authority to advise with such of the Council only as he pleased, and to appoint new members at his pleasure.

Somerset's first rival was his brother, Lord Seymour, who had married Hy. VIII.'s widow. He stirred up the nobles to disaffection with his brother, secretly collected forces, and, his wife being now dead, paid his addresses to the Princess Elizabeth. The Protector, in his own defence

caused him to be arrested on a charge of treason, and sent to the Tower, with the loss of his admiralship. Somerset offered him pardon and freedom, if he would renounce his ambitious designs. Refusing to give such a pledge, he was attainted by Parliament on a charge of intending to seize the King's person, and usurp the Government,—and was executed, 1549.

The Protector's second rival was the Earl of Warwick, who, to advance his own ends, inflamed the quarrel between Somerset and Seymour. Soon after the death of the latter, he began to develop his schemes. The occasion was favourable, for the Protector had become extremely unpopular. The nobility hated him for his arrogance, and for having checked them in appropriating the common-lands,—the lower orders, amongst whom the greatest fidelity to R. Catholicism prevailed, disliked him for supporting the Reformation,—while all classes were incensed against him for—

1. His hasty return to England after *Pinkie*,—his feeble conduct of the Scotch and French war,—and his desire to conclude peace.

2. His rapacity and magnificence. He had appropriated 200 manors, and was building himself a splendid palace in the Strand with materials obtained by demolishing a number of religious houses.

Warwick, St. John, (the President), Arundel, and others, formed a cabal against Somerset, and took upon themselves the entire authority in the Council.

The Protector's power daily declined, and, when matters were ripe for action, Warwick appeared in London at the head of a large force, took the Tower, and won over the City to his cause. Somerset retired, with Ed., to Windsor, after issuing a proclamation calling upon all loyal subjects to rally round him for the defence of the King. No response being made to this appeal, he surrendered himself to the Council, and was *sent to the Tower*, 1549.

Being accused of usurpation of the sovereign power, and of various breaches of the law, he pleaded guilty. Parliament *deprived him of all his offices*, and sentenced him to *pay a fine* of £200 annually, 1550.

He was then released, and allowed to resume his place at the Council Board, while Ed. remitted the fine.

Warwick, upon whom had been conferred the Marshal-

ship, and who was now supreme in the Council, appeared to be fully reconciled to Somerset, and a marriage between the latter's daughter and Warwick's son was arranged; but the reconciliation was illusory.

In 1551 Warwick advanced himself a step higher. The Earl of Northumberland had died issueless; his brother and heir, Sir Thos. Percy, had been attainted.

Warwick procured from the King the grant of the title of *Duke of Northumberland*, and of the extensive family estates.

Somerset having now regained much of his former popularity and power, Northumberland determined on crushing him. He was accordingly arrested, and tried by a jury of peers, on the charge of—

1. *Treason*,—it being alleged that he intended to seize Ed., and usurp the government.

2. *Felony*,—it being alleged that he intended to imprison Northumberland, a Privy Councillor.

He was acquitted on the first charge, but condemned on the second, and beheaded, 1552.

Somerset's ambition was boundless; but he was deficient in the tact and judgment necessary to piloting himself through jealousy and opposition to the haven of his desires. His administration was, on the whole, beneficial to the people.

Several of his partizans were, with great injustice, executed on vague and frivolous charges.

Northumberland was now *facile princeps* in the state; but the decay of Ed.'s health threatened a speedy end to his authority,—for though in reality R. Catholic, he had, from policy, ardently promoted the Protestant cause, which would prove, he well knew, an unpardonable offence in the eyes of Mary, who, as matters now stood, would succeed at the King's death.

Accordingly, he devised a plan by which he should not only preserve his influence, but increase it.

Having excited Ed.'s liveliest alarm by representing to him that Mary's accession would be the signal for the restoration of the Pope's supremacy, and the Roman Catholic worship in England, he proposed to him to alter the succession, so as to secure the throne to a Protestant. He represented that Mary could be passed over on the ground that she had been declared, by Parliament, ille-

gitimate,—that Elizabeth, though a Protestant, could not succeed, since she also had been pronounced illegitimate,—that Mary of Scotland, the next heir to Elizabeth, was a Papist, and consequently out of the question,—and that the nearest in succession to her was Lady Jane Grey, (grand-daughter of Mary, Hy. VII.'s youngest daughter),—a Protestant, and, in every way, a most eligible candidate for the crown, which he proposed should be settled upon her by Ed., by letters-patent.

Seeing that the King received his suggestions favourably, Northumberland next raised the Marquis of Dorset to the Dukedom of Suffolk, and married Lady Jane Grey to his fourth son, Lord Guildford Dudley.

He then renewed his importunities with the King, who, finding himself rapidly sinking, and anxious to secure a Protestant succession, at length yielded, and ordered the judges to draw up letters-patent settling the crown on Lady Jane. The judges at first demurred, on the ground that it would be treason to lend themselves thus to setting aside the arrangement made by Parliament; but Edward promising to call a Parliament to ratify the alteration, and Northumberland and the King pledging themselves that their share in the matter should not in any way be detrimental to them, they consented, and drew up the deed, which then received Ed.'s sanction. Fifteen Lords of the Council, nine judges, and other civil officers, signed a paper binding themselves to support Ed.'s devise.

Northumberland, having gained his ends, now acted in a manner so suspicious as to lend colour to the opinion, generally entertained in that age, that the immediate cause of Ed.'s death was poison. He dismissed all the King's doctors, and entrusted him to the care of a female quack, whose treatment aggravated his complaint, and speedily brought him to the grave.

STATUTES.

Acts Repealing—

1. Laws extending treason beyond the limit of the *Statute of Treason* of Ed. III.

It was also enacted that no one, unless he pleaded guilty, could be convicted of treason, but by testimony of two witnesses, appearing in person at the trial.

2. Laws of Hy. VIII., extending felony.

3. The Statute declaring the sovereign's proclamation to have the same force as an Act of Parliament.

Act of Supremacy, 1547.

Laws against Vagrancy,—enacting, that any one loitering about without occupation, or visible means of support, for three days, might be arrested as a vagabond, and taken before two J.P.'s, who were empowered to have the letter *V* branded on his breast, and to order him to serve the person informing against him, as a slave, for two years. The master was to provide him with bread, water, and broken meat, and might place an iron collar on his neck, or manacle, or fetter, him, and force him to do any kind of work, under penalty of the lash.

Should a slave leave his master for a fortnight, for a first offence the letter *S* was branded on his forehead or cheek, and he was to remain a slave for life,—for a second offence he was to be punished as a felon.

(After the insurrections in this reign, the laws against vagrancy were considerably relaxed in rigour.)

Poor Law,—passed with a view to diminish vagrancy, and to remedy the evils caused by the suppression of monasteries.

It enacted, that in cities, boroughs, and corporate towns, the mayor, and in other parishes the rector and churchwardens, should keep a register of the inhabitants and of the needy poor,—that they should yearly choose, after service on some Sunday, two collectors of alms,—that, on the following Sabbath, after service, the collectors should ask every man and woman, before leaving church, what each was prepared to contribute weekly towards the support of the poor, and enter the sums promised in the register,—and that the collectors should gather the alms weekly, and apply them to the relief of the indigent, whom they were also empowered to set to work, if capable of labour.

The collectors were to render a quarterly account of their receipts and disbursements, to the officers before-mentioned, at a meeting open to all the parish.

Anyone refusing to contribute was to be gently admonished by the officers, and, if still obdurate, to be handed over to the bishop, who was first to try persuasion, and, that failing, then to take decided measures to compel payment.

ECCLESIASTICAL AND RELIGIOUS AFFAIRS.

Primate.—Cranmer.

Progress of the Reformation.

Everything during this reign was favourable to the complete establishment of the reformed faith. Ed. had been brought up in it, and under the influence of Cranmer, and of his tutors, (who the Protector took care should be Protestants), his attachment to it, and anxiety for its progress, became intense.

Somerset, though he had, under Hy. VIII., concealed his opinions, was an ardent Protestant, and, on his accession to power, threw himself heart and soul into the work of the Reformation. The sympathies of the majority of the Council were with him, and he was ably aided and directed by Cranmer, who, moderating the Protector's eagerness, deprecated sweeping and sudden measures as likely to arouse the people's hostility, and induced him to advance by slow, but certain, stages, to the accomplishment of his purpose.

When Northumberland came into power, the R. Catholics, to whose communion he really belonged, hoped to see him restore their faith. But policy compelled him to declare in favour of the Reformation, which, accordingly, advanced unchecked to the end of the reign.

In 1547,—

1. A general visitation of the clergy was made, with a view to discover whether the church reforms passed in the last reign were carried out, and whether the clergy were regular in discharging their duties.

2. Twelve Homilies were published, edited by Cranmer, and chiefly of his composition. Their purpose was

(1.) To ensure the hearing of sermons every Sabbath by the people,—very few of the clergy being able to preach.

(2.) To spread the doctrines of the Reformation, which were fully set forth in these compositions.

3. The clergy were ordered to preach only in Churches.—This measure was aimed specially at those friars who had been in the habit of wandering through the country, inveighing against the Reformation, and exciting popular discontent.

4. The "Law of the Six Articles," and the statutes against heresy, were repealed.

(Gardiner, for opposing the visitation, and urging that no reforms should be undertaken until Ed. was of age, was thrown into prison.)

5. The "Simple and Religious Consultation" was published in English.

This was a "reformation of the Public Services," translated from the "*Simplex et Pia Deliberatio*," drawn up by Melancthon and Bucer, for Hermann, Archbishop of Cologne. It had appeared in Latin in 1545.

6. The Primer of 1545 reprinted.

7. Injunctions were issued by Royal authority, ordering that—

1. On every holiday, when there was no sermon, the Pater Noster, Creed, and Ten Commandments, should be recited from the pulpit, after the Gospel, in English.

2. One chapter of the New, and one of the Old, Testament, should be read at Matins, and Evensong, respectively.

3. The Epistle and Gospel at High Mass should be in English.

4. Processions before High Mass should cease, and the Litany be then sung, in English, in the Church, instead of outside.

8. Convocation and Parliament sanctioned Cranmer's proposal to administer the Communion in both kinds; and a Committee, including Cranmer and Ridley, was appointed to draw up a Communion Service in English, embodying the change.

In 1548,—

1. Images, pictures, and relics were ordered to be removed from Churches.

2. The new "Order of Communion" published, and enforced by Royal Proclamation.

It was not a complete Service; but an English supplement to the Mass, for the use of the laity, until a complete Service-Book should be provided. It followed the "*Deliberatio*."

3. The Committee were empowered to revise all the existing offices of Public Worship, and to compile thence a complete Service-Book.

Many of them did not approve of the work, and refused

to sit,—those actually taking part in it being, probably, Cranmer, Ridley, Goodrich, Holbeach, May, Taylor, Haines, and Cox.

4. Candles, ashes, and palms, were forbidden to be used on Candlemas-day, Ash Wednesday, and Palm Sunday, respectively.

In 1549,—

1. THE FIRST PRAYER-BOOK OF KING EDWARD WAS PUBLISHED.

It was based chiefly on the old Roman Catholic Service-Books, the Commissioners adopting the wise course of comparing that service with the Bible and ancient liturgies,—“retaining what was consistent with their teaching, and rejecting what was not,” besides making certain changes and additions which seemed necessary.

The Baptismal office was taken chiefly from the *Deliberatio*.

The *principal reforms* effected by this Book were—

1. Prayers to the Virgin and to saints were discontinued.
2. The use of the wafer and of incense, and the elevation of the Host, were discarded.
3. The whole book was in English.
4. The Romish “*Hours*” were condensed into *Matins* and *Evensong*.
5. The whole Bible, with some exceptions, was arranged to be read yearly.
6. The 2nd and 3rd Collects at Morning and Evening Prayer, and several collects for Saints’ Days, were substituted for Romish ones supplicating the intercession of the Virgin and Saints.
7. The Psalms were divided into portions for *monthly* reading.

The Morning and Evening Services commenced with the Lord’s Prayer, and ended with the 3rd Collect.

Many *remains of Romanism* are, however, to be found in this Book, owing partly to the compilers’ desire to avoid extreme changes, and partly to their own imperfect spiritual enlightenment.

The chief are the retention of

1. The terms “*altar*,” and “*mass*.”
2. The Consecration Prayer, in the Communion Service, sanctioning the doctrine of Transubstantiation.
3. Prayers for the Dead.

4. Trine Immersion, exorcism of the Devil, and use of the Chrism,—in Baptism.

5. Extreme unction (if desired).

2. **An Act of Uniformity**, enjoining the use of the new Service-Book, and of like rites and ceremonies, in all churches throughout the Kingdom.

3. **An Act permitting priests to marry.**

4. **An Order in Council**, sanctioned by Parliament, for calling in, and destroying, all the old **Service-Books**,—in consequence of the determination shewn by the extreme Romanists to use every means to restore the Latin Ritual.

(This year, 1549, may be regarded as the date of the completion of the Reformation in England.)

The extreme Reformers, (afterwards called "*Puritans*"), dissatisfied with the lately-issued Liturgy, clamoured for its revision, averring that it contained a strong leaven of Popery. They objected especially to—

1. The Communion Service,—especially to the form of words used at the delivery of the Elements.

2. Various vestments.

3. Several holydays.

So great was their influence that,

In 1550,

A Revision of the Liturgy was discussed in Convocation and Parliament. In consequence,

In 1551,—

A Commission of Revision was appointed,—Cranmer being President, and aided by Martyr and Bucer.

In 1552,—

1. **The Revised, or Second, Prayer-Book of King Edward** appeared.

The principal changes were;—*in the Communion Service*—

1. The rejection of "*mass*," and the substitution of "*table*" for "*altar*."

2. The discontinuance of the custom of mixing the wine with water.

3. The placing the bread in the hand, instead of the mouth, of the communicant.

4. The addition of a rubric declaring that kneeling was not an act of adoration of the elements,—and denying the Real Presence.

5. In the *Prayer for "the whole state of Christ's Church,"* the phrase "militant here on earth" was added, and the petition for saints "departed this life" was changed into a thanksgiving.

6. The Ten Commandments were inserted.

In Baptism—Trine Immersion, Exorcism, and the Chrisom were omitted.

The Introductory Sentences, Exhortation, General Confession, and Absolution, were added to Matins. Pss. c., xcvi., and lxxvii. were added to Morning and Evening Prayer.

The Litany was directed to be used on Sunday, as well as on Wednesday and Friday.

Several of the "Prayers and Thanksgivings" upon several occasions were added.

A Rubric preceding Matins greatly simplified vestments.

2. An Act of Uniformity,—enforcing the general use of the Revised Prayer-Book.

Owing to Ed.'s death, so soon after its issue, this book was scarcely used at all.

3. 42 Articles of Religion were drawn up, under Cranmer's direction.

(For their opposition to these measures Gardiner, Bonner, Tonstal, Heath, and Day, were deprived of their bishoprics.)

In addition to these reforms, it was ordered that—

1. A copy of the English Bible, and of Erasmus's *Commentary on the Evangelists*, should be placed in every church.

2. A register of baptisms, marriages, and burials, should be kept in each parish.

3. One-fifth of the income of every living should be spent on the church and parsonage, until both were in good repair.

4. Every clergyman should, for every £100 income from his benefice, keep one student at the University.

In 1553,—

1. An Act passed ordering the **Fasts and Festivals** as they now stand in the Calendar.

2. A **Reformed Primer** published.

The Reformers unfortunately tarnished their good work by

Persecution.—The Council appointed a commission, of

which Cranmer was a member, to seek out, and prosecute, "heretics," (especially Anabaptists), and "contemners of the Book of Common Prayer."

Under this commission were tried, and burned,

Joan Bocher, (or *Joan of Kent*), for holding peculiar opinions concerning the Incarnation, and the Eucharist, and

George Van Parre, a Dutchman, for denying Christ's divinity.

These were the only two executions for religious opinions during this reign; but several London citizens were arrested on charges of heresy, brought before the Council, and released on consenting to abjure.

The Princess Mary adhered to the Romish faith, and Edward was with difficulty dissuaded from bringing her to trial, but a wholesome dread of the resentment of her kinsman, Chas. V., preserved her.

At the close of the reign the majority of the people were Protestants.

INVENTIONS, DISCOVERIES, AND IMPROVEMENTS.

Knitting was invented.

Leaden bullets were first made.

COMMERCE.

Sir Hugh Willoughby, and **Chancellor**, with three ships, started to discover a N.E. passage to E. Asia, 1553. Parting company, Willoughby perished of cold on the coast of Lapland: *Chancellor reached Archangel, and thus opened up our trade with Russia.*

The **Steelyard**, a foreign company, were deprived of their patent, which had secured them almost a monopoly of the trade with the N. of Europe.

A **Commercial Treaty with Sweden** concluded.

SCOTCH AFFAIRS.

Hy. had left instructions that the marriage-treaty between Ed. and Mary should be insisted upon. Somerset, accordingly, having secretly gained the alliance of the Protestant party, called upon the Regent Arran, and the Scotch nobles, to carry out the agreement.

French influence, however, prevailed against the match, the Protector's demands were refused, and both countries prepared for

WAR, 1547-1550.—France aiding Scotland.

Somerset crossed the Border, at the head of 18,000 troops, and supported by a fleet of 34 ships, advanced upon Edinburgh.

He found Arran encamped on the banks of the Esk, with about 40,000 men, at

Pinkey-Cleugh, near Musselburgh, 1547.—English victorious.

Arran occupied an impregnable position, but *Somerset* advancing to take possession of a neighbouring hill, the Regent mistook the movement for a retreat to re-embark his troops, and, accordingly, against the advice of his officers, and the wish of his soldiers, quitted his post and attacked the English.

The Scots fought feebly and confusedly, and suffered the most crushing defeat that had been experienced since Flodden, losing 14,000 in killed alone.

Somerset now plundered Leith and the neighbouring villages, and entered Edinburgh, but, information reaching him of his brother's plot to overthrow him, instead of following up his advantage, he withdrew his army and fleet from Scotland, and returned to London to guard his own interests.

This terrible defeat induced the Scots to seek a closer alliance with France.

A convention was held at Stirling, which decided to seek further aid from that country, and to send Mary to be brought up at the French Court. In 1548 Parliament agreed to a marriage between the Dauphin and the young Queen, and she was despatched to France.

Meanwhile Montalembert, Monsieur d'Essé, a distinguished French commander, landed in Scotland, with 6,000 French and German troops; and, after Mary's departure, a fierce war was waged by the allies against England, the advantage, on the whole, being with the Scots, owing to Montalembert's generalship, and the diversion of English forces meant for Scotland, to crush home-rebellions.

Peace was concluded, 1550, by the Treaty of Boulogne, which ended also the war with France.

Terms.—England

1. Not to make war against Scotland, without some fresh cause.
2. To surrender Lauder and Douglas, and to demolish the fortresses of Roxburgh and Eyemouth.
3. To resign the marriage-treaty between Ed. and Mary.

IRISH AFFAIRS.

O'Moore and O'Connor, two powerful Irish chieftains, rebelled against the English authority. The rising was quelled. They were then treacherously advised to go to London to seek pardon: complying, they were, on their arrival, thrown into prison, and their estates confiscated, and granted to those lords of the Pale who had betrayed them.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS.

Scotland.	France.	Germany.	Spain.
MARY.	HENRY II.	CHARLES V.	CHARLES I.

Popes.

PAUL III.
JULIUS III.

MARY I.

(THE FIRST QUEEN REGNANT OF ENGLAND.)

Dates.—1516, (at Greenwich);—July 6, 1553;—1558, (at Westminster;—of dropsy, and fever aggravated by mental distress, caused by her husband's coldness,—her having no children,—the prospect of Elizabeth's accession, and the consequent restoration of Protestantism,—the hatred of her people,—and the loss of Calais, which she felt so acutely that she declared its name would be found engraven on her heart after death), in her 43rd year. Reigned 5½ years.

Descent.—Elder daughter of Hy. VIII., by Catherine of Arragon.

Married Philip II. of Spain and the Netherlands, son of the Emperor Chas. V. Immediately upon Mary's acces-

sion, Chas. made proposals to her to marry his son Philip, heir to the Spanish crown, then a widower, and eleven years younger than the Queen.

Mary hailed the offer with gladness, as a means of restoring Romanism as the national faith.

Norfolk and others were in favour of the match; but Gardiner opposed it, while popular feeling was strong against it. A general dread was felt lest England should become a mere appanage of Spain, and lest the Roman Catholic religion should, under the direction of the cruel bigot Philip, be re-established by bloodshed.

The Commons sent a deputation to remonstrate with Mary on the proposed union, urging her to seek a consort from amongst the English nobility;—she replied that she should take counsel in the matter from God and her own heart alone, and, in anger, dissolved Parliament.

Moved, however, by the almost universal opposition, the Queen caused to be drawn up, and published, the marriage-treaty, which was of a reassuring character, and protective of English liberty.

It provided that

1. Philip should have merely the title of "King,"—that the administration should be entirely in Mary's hands,—and that he should not succeed her, in case of her predeceasing him.

2. He should swear to preserve all men's rights and privileges,—to bestow office on no foreigner,—not to carry Mary abroad without her consent, or her children, (should she have issue), without permission of the nobility,—not to take from England any ships, or ammunition, or crown-jewels,—and not to engage the country in war with France, on behalf of Spain.

Parliament (many of whose members Philip had bribed), then ratified the marriage on these terms.

Philip reached England, in July, 1554, and on the 25th was married to Mary at Winchester. The Royal pair then made a procession to London, which they entered with great pomp: thence they retired to Windsor, where they henceforth lived.

Philip was cold, and ceremonious, and haughty to even the highest nobles, owing to which, and his efforts in favour of Romanism, he incurred the bitterest hatred from all classes.

Mary was madly attached to her husband, (though he treated her with contemptuous neglect), and made repeated endeavours to persuade Parliament to give him a share in the administration, and to declare him heir-presumptive. But, though Philip made a bid for popularity by procuring from Mary the release of several prisoners of note, the feeling against him was so strong, that the Commons, obsequious in other matters, not only flatly refused the Queen's demands, but would not even consent to his coronation.

Philip left England in 1555, to join his father in the Netherlands. In the same year Chas. abdicated in Philip's favour his Belgic dominions, and in 1556 resigned the crown of Spain to him.

Philip never again visited the country, save for about three months in 1557, when he came over for his own selfish ends.

In spite, however, of his unkindness, the Queen continued to love him ardently,—supplying him with money, and seconding his continental policy by employing every means to bring Parliament to consent to war with France.

Issue.—None.

Claim.—*Good*, on three grounds:—

1. She was the next heir by birth.
2. Parliament had, by the Act of Succession of 1544, passed by Hy.'s instructions, settled the crown upon her, in case of Ed.'s dying childless.
3. Parliament having granted Hy. VIII. the power to fix the succession by will, he had made the same disposition as that which he had directed the Commons to do.

Character.—Naturally of a gloomy and ascetic disposition, the disgrace of her mother's divorce, and of being herself declared illegitimate, rendered her morose and vindictive.

She possessed the Tudor courage, force of will, and haughtiness.

Her mental powers were considerable, and her attainments extensive; she understood Latin, French, Spanish, and Italian, and excelled in needlework and playing the lute.

Her private character was spotless, and her religious zeal sincere.

She is generally regarded with deadly abhorrence, as

"Bloody Mary." But there is much to be said in palliation of her severe persecution of the Protestants:—

1. Persecution was the common resort of every party in power at this period.

2. The Queen had been, during Ed.'s reign, subjected to persecution for *her* faith, and was, consequently, bitterly prejudiced against the Protestants, her feeling of dislike to them being intensified by their attempt to set her aside for Lady Jane Grey.

3. Mary was under the counsel of brutal bigots,—Gardiner, Bonner, and, especially, Philip.

WAR.

WITH FRANCE, 1557, 1558.

Origin.—France and Spain were at war, the Pope having engaged the French to aid him in expelling the Spaniards from Italy.

Though it had been stipulated that Philip should not attempt to draw England into hostilities with France, he used all his powers of persuasion to induce Mary to aid him, and even came to England for a short time to urge the matter upon her.

Mary ardently supported her husband's proposal, but Pole, and the majority of the Council, were determinately opposed to it.

At this juncture, however, occurred *Stafford's expedition*, which had been fitted out by the King of France.

A general indignation was, in consequence, felt against him, and the Council consented to Mary's declaring war, an *additional pretext* for which was an assertion that *France had abetted Wyatt's Rebellion*.

To provide means for carrying on the contest, Mary resorted to the most unconstitutional measures,—exactng loans and subsidies,—pressing men to serve,—and "requisitioning" corn wherewith to victual the fleet.

Events.—In 1557, 10,000 English troops, under the Earl of Pembroke, were sent over to the Netherlands to join Philip's forces.

The allies, 60,000 strong, under *Philibert, Duke of Savoy*, besieged

St. Quentin,—which was defended by *Amiral Coligny*. *Montmorency*, the French Constable, advanced to its relief,

but was disastrously defeated by Philibert, with an immense loss in killed, and 3,000 prisoners.

So crushing was the catastrophe that, had they marched upon Paris, nothing could have prevented the capital falling into the hands of the allies. But Philip had not courage for the attempt.

St. Quentin was taken a fortnight after the battle.

The English fleet devastated the French coast during the campaign.

In 1558 a humiliating disaster befel England in the loss of Calais, the governor of which was *Sir Thos. Wentworth*, and which was considered impregnable.

The town was surrounded by marshes, through which there was, in winter, only one approach, effectually guarded by two outlying forts,—St. Agatha and Nieullay.

To save expense, it had of late years been the custom for the greater portion of the garrison to winter in England, and to return to Calais in the spring.

The *Duc de Guise*, aware of this practice, determined upon making an attempt to surprise the town in the middle of winter.

He was entirely successful. St. Agatha and Nieullay were taken by storm,—the castle commanding the sea was captured by a daring stratagem, aided by friendly hands within, so that an English fleet bringing large reinforcements was compelled to return useless,—and Wentworth, a week after the first attack, surrendered the town, **Jan. 7.**

Guînes and Hames, two small fortresses in the Calais marshes, fell immediately afterwards. The loss of Calais, which had been held by the English since 1347, (when it was captured by Ed. III., after nearly a year's siege), and which was the key to France, caused general indignation against Mary, who, after entering on the war merely to please Philip, had, by her parsimony, brought such a terrible disaster on the country.

Large sums of money were voted to carry on the war, which was, however, henceforth of little importance.

At *Gravelines* an English fleet aided in a Spanish victory.

The allied fleets arranged an attack on

Brest, but, instead of carrying it out, merely burned a few small places along the coast.

Philip and the King of France were treating for peace, at Cambray, when Mary died.

PLOTS AND REBELLIONS.

1. A Plot to dethrone Mary, in favour of Elizabeth, (who was to be married to the Earl of Devon), 1554.

Origin.—Hatred of the projected *Spanish match*.

Leaders.—The *Duke of Suffolk*, (father of Lady Jane Grey), *Sir Peter Carew*, and *Sir Thos. Wyatt*.

Suffolk was to raise the Midland Counties,—Carew, the Western,—and Wyatt, Kent.

Suffolk failed, and was arrested,—Carew failed, and fled to France.

Wyatt's Insurrection alone came to anything. Having issued a proclamation against Mary's evil advisers, and her proposed marriage, he was joined by a large number of Kentish men.

The Duke of Norfolk was sent against him; but his forces joined the insurgents, and Wyatt marched on London at the head of 15,000 followers.

At their approach Mary shewed the greatest resolution, and harangued the citizens at the Guildhall, declaring that she would never marry without the consent of Parliament.

Wyatt, on reaching Southwark, found the bridge fortified against him,—retired to Kingston, and, that bridge having been demolished, crossed the Thames in boats,—entered London on the W., and advanced as far as Ludgate,—found his further progress stopped,—returned towards Temple Bar, and, being deserted by most of his followers, surrendered himself to Sir Maurice Berkeley, whom he met at the head of a body of horse.

Wyatt was executed. Of the rest of the rebels who had been taken, about 60 suffered death, while 400, after being taken before the Queen with ropes round their necks, and on their knees praying for forgiveness, were pardoned.

The Duke of Suffolk also expiated on the scaffold his share in the plot.

2. Stafford's Rebellion, (a paltry affair), 1557.

Thomas Stafford, who claimed descent from the Duke of Buckingham, sailed from France with 32 men,—landed at Scarborough, and seized the Castle,—was speedily taken,—and executed on Tower Hill.

He seems to have cherished a wild ambition for the crown, and to have calculated that the general hatred towards Mary would secure him abundance of support.

STATUTES.

Act confirming that passed under Ed. VI., which limited treason and felony.

Act of Legitimation,—pronouncing Hy.'s marriage with Catherine of Arragon valid,—annulling Cranmer's divorce,—and declaring Mary to be legitimate.

Act declaring it treason to compass or attempt the death of Philip, as long as he should be Mary's consort.

Statutes against treasonable and seditious speech.

ECCLESIASTICAL AND RELIGIOUS AFFAIRS.

Primates.—Cranmer, Cardinal Pole.

THE RESTORATION OF ROMAN CATHOLICISM,

as the national faith, was the great purpose of Mary's life, which she commenced to carry out immediately upon her accession.

In 1553,

on entering London, she released the R. Catholic bishops Gardiner, Bonner, and Tunstal.

A week after, she declared publicly to the Lord Mayor and Aldermen that she would not "compel men's consciences" in matters of religion; but her acts soon belied her words.

In less than a month, the Papist bishops were restored to their sees, and Gardiner was made Lord Chancellor.

Holgate, Archbishop of York,—Coverdale, Bishop of Exeter,—Ridley, Bishop of London,—Hooper, Bishop of Gloucester, (who had been most demonstratively loyal during the movement in favour of Lady Jane Grey),—and Latimer, formerly Bishop of Worcester, were next thrown into prison.

Before Parliament met, Mary, on her own authority, ordered that no minister should preach without a special licence,—and that all foreign Protestants should leave the kingdom: at the same time she encouraged the use of the Mass, which had been forbidden by law under Ed. VI.

Several laymen who remonstrated with the Queen on these breaches of faith were pilloried, or imprisoned.

At the opening of Parliament, a Latin Mass was celebrated in accordance with the Romish ritual.

Parliament showed itself ready to second the Queen in her aims.

They repealed all the Acts of Edward VI. relating to religion, and restored the service of the Church as it was in the last year of Hy. VIII.'s reign.

Convocation also declared in favour of the re-establishment of Romanism.

After the dissolution of Parliament, the Mass was everywhere restored,—celibacy was enjoined on all the clergy, and those amongst them who were married, and would not consent to part from their wives, were ejected from their livings.

Mary now sent to the Pope, assuring him of her earnest desire to see England reconciled to him.

In 1554,

A House of Commons assembled, which, by means of bribery, and of skilful management by Gardiner, and the other R. Catholics, was entirely subservient to the Queen.

In consequence of Mary's invitation, the Pope sent Cardinal Pole to England as Legate. With the consent of the Queen, he appeared before Parliament, and invited them to restore themselves and the realm to communion with Rome. Both houses, in reply, voted an address to Mary and Philip, in which they bewailed the terrible crime they had committed in separating themselves from the true Church, and promised to repeal all laws injurious to the Papal See. Pole then, in the Pope's name, granted absolution to Parliament, and England generally, and declared them to be again received into the bosom of the Church.

Mary, to shew her sincerity, then gave up all the church-lands she possessed, and transferred tithes and *annates* to the Pope.

That Church property which had fallen into other hands than Mary's was not restored. Gardiner, knowing that the proprietors would never consent to part with it, and that the mere hint of such a thing would raise a fatal opposition to all religious change, made a virtue of necessity, and, to secure the co-operation of Parliament in his

schemes, expressly promised a Papal bull confirming the present ownership of all property taken from the Church under Hy. VIII. and Ed. VI.

In 1555 began the

MARIAN PERSECUTION.

Until her marriage Mary, though straining every nerve to completely restore Roman Catholicism, had not shewn any great tendency to persecution; but, after her union with Philip, she seems to have imbibed his cruel spirit, and, under his influence, to have determined upon crushing Protestantism at any cost. There is no doubt that to him, primarily, we owe the terrible scenes of this blood-stained reign.

The first step was the revival, by Parliament, of all the old laws against heretics.

Mary then prepared to put them in force.

Pole counselled toleration; but Gardiner, Bonner, and others, supported Philip, and the Queen listened to their counsels.

Gardiner now established a Court in London to try heretics.

The first to be arraigned were

JOHN ROGERS, Prebend of St. Paul's;

HOOPER, Bishop of Gloucester;

TAYLOR, Rector of Hadleigh; and

SAUNDERS, Rector of Allhallows, Coventry.

They were asked to acknowledge the Pope's supremacy in the Church, and to declare their belief in Transubstantiation. Refusing, they were condemned to be burned as heretics.

The sentence was carried out on each in the place of his abode.

Rogers suffered first, at Smithfield,—thus becoming the *Proto-Martyr* of the Marian Persecution.

FERRAR, Bishop of St. David's, was burned soon after.

Gardiner, who was not, at heart, an over-zealous Papist, had urged Mary to severities, in the expectation that a few executions would suffice to awe the Protestants into conformity. Finding that persecution only increased their steadfastness, and must end in failure and odium, and that it was not by any means pleasant work, he withdrew from active participation in the crusade, and handed the chief

conduct of it over to "*bloody Bonner*," whose brutal nature revelled in his task. The fires henceforth grew hotter, and more frequent.

LATIMER,—RIDLEY,—and CRANMER, (who had previously been arrested, and convicted of high treason for his share in the movement in favour of Lady Jane Grey, but whom Mary now determined to punish for heresy), were taken to Oxford, and brought before a Court composed of doctors of the University, to dispute about the Mass,—with particular reference to Transubstantiation. All of them, especially the subtle Ridley, were more than a match for their opponents, but were silenced by clamour, and remanded.

Ridley and Latimer were soon after condemned by another Court, and burned near Balliol College.

Bonner now declined to accept any longer the main responsibility of the persecution, and Mary was compelled openly to take it upon herself; nor did she allow it to flag under her direction.

By Philip's advice an approach was made towards the establishment of the *Inquisition* in England. A Commission to root out heresy was appointed on the Queen's sole authority. It consisted of twenty-one members, and was empowered to employ the torture in its investigations, while Justices of the Peace were instructed to choose in every parish zealous Papists to watch, and inform against, suspected heretics.

In 1558

CRANMER was burned at Oxford.

The sufferings of the Protestants had already excited throughout the country horror and indignation, which were intensified by the execution of the Primate.

In deference, probably, to the strong popular discontent, Mary and her agents now relaxed the severity of their measures, and the persecution comparatively languished for the remainder of the reign.

The number of martyrs who suffered death under Mary is variously computed at from 277 to 300; amongst them were 55 women, and 4 children. Besides these, hundreds were punished by fines, imprisonments, and the torture.

The method of procedure against these unfortunates was most unjust. They were, in most cases, arrested, not for any overt speech, or act, against the Romish faith and

worship, but on mere suspicion. They were then required to subscribe to certain doctrines, and, on refusing, were condemned.

The touchstone of the examiners was the Real Presence,—the majority of the martyrs suffering for denying that doctrine.

TRANSLATION OF SCRIPTURES.

The Geneva Bible,—based on Tyndale's,—made at Geneva, by Coverdale, and other refugees.

VARIOUS MATTERS.

LADY JANE GREY, b. 1537, d. 1554.

Northumberland, having induced Ed. to alter the succession in Lady Jane's favour, kept the matter secret, until his plans should be ripe for execution.

His first aim was to gain possession of Mary's person.

Accordingly, he sent to her intelligence that her brother was dying, and summoned her to his bedside.

She obeyed, and had reached Hoddesden, within a few hours of London, when she was met by a messenger, from the Earl of Arundel, with news of Ed.'s death and of Northumberland's schemes.

Mary immediately retired to Kenninghall, Norfolk, and thence sent a letter to the Council, ordering them to proclaim her. She then made her way to the fortress of Framlingham, Suffolk,—counting upon the support of the Eastern Counties, since Northumberland had, when E. of Warwick, made himself most unpopular in that part of the country, in consequence of his severity in suppressing Ket's insurrection.

Northumberland, seeing that all was known, threw off the mask, and adopted decisive measures.

Under his influence, the Council returned answer to Mary's letter that Lady Jane had a just title to succeed Ed.,—"not only by good order of old ancient good laws of the realm, but also by our late Sovereign Lord's letters-patent."

Northumberland then, accompanied by the Duke of Suffolk, the Earl of Pembroke, and other nobles, went to Zion House, where Lady Jane resided, and informed her that she was now Queen. For some time she refused to accept the crown, declaring that the lawful succession lay

in Mary and Elizabeth; but at length she yielded to the entreaties of her father, father-in-law, and husband.

The Council now ordered her to be proclaimed throughout the country; but this was done in London only, (July 10), and there without any popular enthusiasm; for Northumberland was regarded with suspicion and dislike, and the general opinion was in favour of Mary's being the rightful heir.

Meanwhile the men of Suffolk had flocked round Mary's standard, delighted with the promises she made them of religious toleration. Large numbers of nobles and gentlemen from all quarters joined her, and she was soon at the head of 30,000 troops.

Northumberland now set out for Suffolk, with 6,000 men, to attack Mary. Finding his forces too feeble to oppose her, he sent to London for reinforcements. His request was vain, for the Council, wisely guiding themselves by popular opinion, had meanwhile returned to their allegiance to Mary.

On the 19th, by their direction, the Lord Mayor proclaimed Mary at Paul's Cross, amidst enthusiastic applause.

Suffolk, who commanded the Tower, threw open its gates, and declared in Mary's favour,—and Northumberland, who had retired to Cambridge, being abandoned by his forces, followed his example.

Lady Jane gladly retired to Zion House, after a merely nominal reign of nine days, (July 10-19).

Mary now made a progress to London. Everywhere she was received with boisterous loyalty. Elizabeth met her at the head of 1,000 horsemen, whom she had equipped at her own expense, to support Mary's and her own cause against the usurper,—and the two sisters entered London together in triumph.

Northumberland, Suffolk, Lady Jane, her husband, and several others of the nobility, were imprisoned.

Northumberland and others were tried, and condemned, but only the Duke, Sir John Gates, and Sir Thos. Palmer were executed.

On the scaffold, Northumberland declared that he died a Roman Catholic, and urged the people to return to that faith.

Suffolk was pardoned, as also were the Council generally, on the plea that they had acted under compulsion in what they had done.

Lady Jane and her husband pleaded guilty of treason, and were sentenced to death, but were kept prisoners in the Tower until the rebellion in which the Duke of Suffolk took part. On pretence of complicity in this plot, Mary ordered their execution.

For three days preceding her death, Lady Jane was persecuted by the arguments of priests whom Mary sent to convert her. She remained firm, however, and sent Mary a Greek Testament, together with an autograph letter, in that language, declaring her adherence to the reformed faith.

Dudley was executed first. Jane had refused to admit him to a parting interview, lest she should lose her self-command, but stood at her window to give him a farewell look as he passed to execution. When her turn came, she was met, on her way to the scaffold, by men bearing the mutilated body of her husband. She quailed not, but met her fate with calm courage, declaring to the spectators that she alone was to blame in having accepted the crown.

Her uncle, Sir Thos. Grey, was executed soon after.

Lady Jane was most pious, amiable, and accomplished. Under the tutorship of Roger Ascham she had acquired a thorough knowledge of Latin and Greek, and was, moreover, well versed in modern languages. She was of studious and retiring habits, and little suited for a throne.

Her *claim* was decidedly *bad*. Ed. had certainly settled the crown upon her by letters-patent, but this *alteration of the succession had not been sanctioned by Parliament*, and was, consequently, invalid.

INVENTIONS, DISCOVERIES, AND IMPROVEMENTS.

Glass-bottles first made in England.

COMMERCE.

An Embassy from the Czar, with whose dominions trade had been opened under Ed. VI., visited the English Court, —being the first communication Russia had held with the W. of Europe. As the result, a *Commercial Treaty* was entered into with Russia, and a *Russian Company* formed.

SCOTCH AFFAIRS.

The Queen-dowager, Mary of Guise, succeeded, in 1554, by French influence, in procuring the removal of Arran

from the Regency, and her own appointment to that office.

When England joined Spain against France, the Regent assembled an army to make war on England, in support of her native country, and Scotland's old and trusty ally ; but the barons refused to cross the Border, and she dismissed them with manifest rage.

In 1557, Mary, Queen of Scots, was married to the Dauphin, Francis.

The Scotch Parliament decreed that he should be entitled "King of Scotland" while the union lasted,—that all letters should run, in Scotland, in the joint names of Francis and Mary,—and that the arms of France should be quartered with those of Scotland on the Great Seal and the Currency-stamp.

The Reformation in Scotland acquired a mighty impetus during this reign, owing chiefly to John Knox, who returned to his native land in 1555.

By his eloquence, and energetic efforts, the Protestants were induced to determine to formally separate from the Romish Church ; and, though the great Reformer, in danger of his life from the Papists, again retired to Geneva, they fulfilled their purpose.

In 1557 they entered into a covenant, pledging themselves to—

1. "Establish the Word of God."
2. "Maintain the Gospel of Christ."
3. "Labour to have faithful ministers."
4. "Execute judgment on . . . the superstitions and abominations of the ancient faith."

At the same time they passed resolutions that—

1. Ed. VI.'s Service-Book should be adopted in all the churches of the kingdom.

2. Private preaching and expounding should be employed, until it should please God to move Jas. to permit "public preaching by faithful ministers."

They also assumed the name of the "Congregation of the Lord,"—whence their leaders were afterwards styled the "Lords of the Congregation."

The Roman Catholic clergy, with a view to awe the Reformers, burned Walter Mill, a converted priest. This act roused general indignation. The Lords of the Congregation presented a remonstrance to the Regent,—deny-

ing the power of the priests to punish Protestants,—declaring that henceforth they would oppose persecution by force,—demanding reforms in Church and State,—and claiming the right to have the services of the Church celebrated in the vulgar tongue.

They then presented a petition to Parliament to suspend all laws against heretics, until all religious controversies should be settled by a general Church Council.

The Regent, though utterly opposed to their propositions, yet required the support of the Protestant Lords in passing her pet scheme for making Hy. joint sovereign, with Mary of Scotland. Accordingly, she temporised with them, begging them to withdraw their demands for a time, and promising to give them a fair consideration at some future period, and assuring them, meanwhile, of her protection.

The Lords agreed under a protest, which they caused to be read in Parliament, and which hinted pretty clearly what steps they would take should their demands be refused.

Having succeeded in carrying her cherished measure through Parliament, the Regent, evidently under-estimating the power of the Protestant party, thought no more of her pledge to them; so that the relations between the Lords and herself were, at the time of the death of Mary of England, of a bitter and hostile character.

IRISH AFFAIRS.

O'Moore's and O'Connor's estates were, by Mary, formed into the *King's County* and *Queen's County*,—the capital of the former being named *Philipstown*, after her husband, and that of the latter, *Maryborough*, after herself.

The Roman Catholic religion was reëstablished in the country, and Mary restored what Church lands herself possessed.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS.

Scotland.	France.	Germany.	Spain.
MARY.	HENRY II.	CHARLES V.	CHARLES I. PHILIP II.

Popes.

JULIUS III.
MARCELLUS II.
PAUL IV.

ELIZABETH.

Dates.—1533, (at Greenwich);—Nov. 17, 1558;—1603, (at Richmond,—of decay of nature, consequent upon old age, hastened, however, by a settled melancholy caused, apparently, by the death of Essex), in her 70th year. Reigned 44½ years.

Descent.—Younger daughter of Hy. VIII.,—by Anne Boleyn.

At Mary's accession she was on the best possible terms with Elizabeth; but her cordiality was of short duration, since she disliked and suspected her sister, owing to her Protestant principles, and was enraged with her for refusing to attend Mass.

When Wyatt's Insurrection occurred, Elizabeth was said, (and, apparently, not without reason), to be implicated in it. Mary eagerly seized the opportunity to have her arrested. She was committed to the Tower, and examined by the Council. She successfully defended herself; but Mary, under the influence of the Spanish party, meditated executing her. Gardiner, however, induced her to adopt gentler measures, and Elizabeth was sent to reside at Woodstock, in custody of Sir Henry Bedingfield.

After Mary's marriage, Philip exerted himself with the Queen on Elizabeth's behalf. His motive was entirely selfish. He feared that, should anything happen to Elizabeth, his wife would be succeeded by Mary of Scots, then betrothed to the Dauphin, and that thus England and France would become one kingdom.

By his influence, Elizabeth was released, and allowed to retire to Hatfield House, which continued to be her abode during Mary's life.

During the Persecution, she was several times in great danger, traps being frequently laid for her by her enemies; but, by great tact in conversation, and by outward conformity to Romanism, managed to save herself.

Her accession was hailed with general enthusiasm. Her journey from Hatfield to London was a triumphal procession through assembled multitudes of vociferously loyal subjects.

The first act of her reign did not belie the high opinion that had been formed of her character, for, forgetting all injuries and insults she had endured during Mary's reign, she received with cordiality those who had shewn themselves her bitterest enemies, and issued a general amnesty.

Marriage.—*Nil.*

Before her accession, Mary, in order to rid herself of Elizabeth's presence in the country, proposed to her a marriage with the Duke of Savoy: Elizabeth declined.

It seems certain that she had decided to remain single; for, when her first Parliament voted an address urging her to marry, she replied, that, while appreciating the affectionate interest shewn towards her by the Commons, she must beg them not to interfere in this matter again, since she had resolved to live and die "a maiden queen."

To this purpose she adhered, though frequently, in order to pacify her Ministers, Parliament, and people, (who, anxious to prevent a disputed succession at her death, and to see the crown transmitted to a Protestant heir, repeatedly urged her to choose a husband), she professed her intention of speedily marrying, and, in the case of some of her suitors, went so far as to have the articles drawn up.

She had many suitors during the course of her reign, and, notwithstanding her determination, temporised with some of them, from motives of policy, and coquetted with others, to gratify her excessive vanity and love of admiration.

The first to make advances to her, after her accession, was Philip, her late sister's widower, who proposed immediately upon his wife's decease,—offering to obtain a Papal dispensation allowing the marriage. Under no circumstances would Elizabeth have yielded to his suit, for not only was Philip hateful alike to her and the country, but in marrying him she would be virtually declaring herself illegitimate, and without claim to the crown,—for, if a union with her deceased sister's husband were legal, when sanctioned by the Pope, then Hy. VIII.'s marriage with his brother's widow, Catherine, which *had* been allowed by dispensation from Rome, was valid, and, consequently, Anne Boleyn had not been Hy.'s lawful wife. But Elizabeth, not wishing, at present, to embroil herself with Spain, instead of giving him a decided negative

reply, gave Philip reason to hope that he might eventually prove successful in his wooing, and he sanguinely applied to Rome for the dispensation. When she found herself established on the throne, however, she gave him a firm denial.

Archduke Charles, son of the Emperor Ferdinand, (with whom Elizabeth long coquetted, going so far as to lay a marriage-contract before the Imperial ambassador ;—but at last, breaking off the treaty, on the plea that she could not tolerate the exercise by him of the Roman Catholic religion),—Casimir, son of the Elector Palatine,—Eric, King of Sweden,—Adolph, duke of Holstein,—and the Earl of Arran, heir-presumptive to the Scotch crown, sought her hand. All were repulsed, but with a delicate art, that, instead of crushing their hopes, only increased their attachment and raised their expectations of success.

Elizabeth had at her own Court many admirers, with whom she indulged her propensity for flirtation. The most favoured of these was Robert Dudley, younger son of the Duke of Northumberland. He had taken part in the movement in favour of Lady Jane Grey, and was tried for the offence : he pleaded guilty and was pardoned. Elizabeth, at her accession, made him Master of the Horse, and Earl of Leicester, and loaded him with presents of mansions and estates. He was handsome, and accomplished ; but destitute of honour, courage, and ability,—and a thorough profligate.

Incited by ambition, and encouraged by her manifest preference, he aimed at a union with the Queen, to prepare the way for which he murdered Amy Robsart, to whom he had been privately married. For several years there seemed every prospect of his hopes being realised ; but, at length, Elizabeth cooled towards him.

In 1570, Chas. made a mock peace with the Huguenots, and, in order to deceive them into believing that he was friendly disposed towards the Protestants, professed an earnest desire for a close alliance with Elizabeth, and proposed her union with the Duke of Anjou, his brother, and heir-presumptive to the French throne. At this period the Queen was critically situated, being threatened by both Mary's party, and Philip. The prospect of a union between England and France would alarm and repress both. Accordingly, she professed willingness to

entertain Anjou's suit, and for some time negotiations were carried on, which seemed to be rapidly smoothing the way for the marriage; but, both parties being insincere, the treaty was, as a matter of course, finally broken off.

Soon afterwards, however, Chas. again made overtures to Elizabeth, and proposed her marriage with the Duke of Alençon, his younger brother. The Queen, for the same political reasons as before, entertained the suit. On the death of Chas. IX., the Duke of Anjou succeeded him, and Alençon became Duke of Anjou. Though he was twenty-five years younger than Elizabeth, and had never seen her, the flattering portraits of her that he had beheld, and the glowing descriptions of her perfections which he had heard, seem to have excited the tenderest sentiments in his bosom; while the Queen, on her part, touched and delighted at the homage of so young a man, seemed more inclined than at any other period to break her vow of celibacy.

Anjou paid her a visit at Greenwich,—both seemed mutually satisfied with one another,—and, on his return to France, in 1579, Elizabeth ordered a marriage-contract to be drawn up, and announced to her Counsellors her intention that the union should take place six weeks after the contract should be signed. In 1581 Anjou returned to England. During his absence a severe struggle between affection on the one hand, and pride and duty on the other, occupied the Queen's breast; but her suitor was, when he appeared, received by her with great ardency. At a festival held on the anniversary of her accession, Elizabeth, after earnest and protracted discourse with him, openly removed a ring from one of her fingers, and placed it on one of Anjou's,—an evident pledge of marriage. Immediately after, her mental contest recommenced, and ended in a decision adverse to the Duke. She summoned him to a private interview. What occurred thereat is not known; but it certainly ended in her cancelling her promise, for, on quitting her presence, he threw away her ring, and departed anathematizing women, and islanders generally, for their fickleness. It is supposed that she made his religion the plea for rejecting him.

Elizabeth's last beau was the unfortunate *Earl of Essex*. But, whatever may have been her sentiments towards him, it is certain that he never aspired to the affections of the

old lady, and, consequently, he cannot be regarded as one of her suitors.

Claim.—*Good*, on two grounds:—

1. Parliament had, by the Act of Succession of 1544, passed by Hy.'s instructions, settled the crown upon her in case of Mary's dying childless.

2. Parliament having granted Hy. VIII. the power to fix the succession by will, he had made the same disposition which he had directed the Commons to do.

Character.—Keen,—watchful,—brave,—energetic,—politic,—self-controlled,—frugal in all things but personal adornment,—magnanimous,—and honourable, (paying off the heavy debts contracted by her predecessors, amounting to £4,000,000, together with interest upon them,—and refunding forced loans which she had levied).

Quick-tempered,—jealous,—and vain of her person and accomplishments: she is said never to have worn the same attire twice, and, at her death, over 3,000 dresses were found in her wardrobes.

The most imperious and despotic of the Tudors; but her sagacity, self-command, and tact enabled her always to perceive when she had gone too far, and to retreat with grace from an untenable or dangerous position.

Learned in the classics and modern languages, and excelling in all the female accomplishments of the age: of her skill in music and dancing she was especially conceited.

Under her wise and firm government the country rose to a hitherto unexampled pitch of greatness and prosperity. Trade flourished,—commerce wonderfully increased,—and England became respected and feared abroad. Much of this was, doubtless, owing to the high character of her ministers and commanders, but her wise choice of these only reflects additional glory upon herself.

Sextus V. declared that she had "a princely head-piece."

WARS.

1. **IN FRANCE, 1562**, on behalf of the French Protestants, or *Huguenots*, (a corruption of the German *Eidgenossen* = bound together by oath).

Origin.—During the reign of Francis II., the Duc de Guise had exercised absolute control over him, and had been virtually governor of the realm. At the death of the King, De Guise was disgraced, by the influence of the

Queen-mother, Catherine de Medicis, who was appointed Regent to her son, Chas. IX., while the King of Navarre, (who, at heart, favoured the Protestants), supplanted De Guise as lieutenant-general of France.

De Guise and Montmorency, (who also had been disgraced at the accession of Francis), leagued themselves against Catherine, and were joined by Navarre.

Catherine, in her perplexity, allied herself to the Prince de Condé and the Huguenots, (whom, however, she bitterly hated).

The Protestants, headed by Condé, Coligny, and others, rose in arms in behalf of the Regent, who was, however, seized by Guise and Montmorency, and compelled to join their party.

All France was now convulsed by civil war.

Condé appealed to Elizabeth for aid, offering to give up Havre to the English in return. His terms were accepted, and war was declared.

Events.—The Earl of Warwick, at the head of 6,000 men, took possession of Havre, and gave valuable support to the Huguenots.

The latter, however, being defeated at Dreux, where Condé and Montmorency were both taken prisoners,—and the Duc de Guise being assassinated, both parties became desirous of reconciliation, and peace was concluded between them at *Amboise*, without the knowledge of Elizabeth, who, accordingly, refused to give up

Havre, which was then besieged by the now united French. The *Earl of Warwick* made a brave defence, but, the plague decimating his forces, and provisions running short, he was compelled to capitulate, at the end of ten months, and was allowed to return, with his army, to England, without ransom.

Peace was now concluded by the second

Treaty of Troyes, 1562.

Terms.—1. The hostages given by France, for the restoration of Calais, to be sent back, on payment, to England, of 220,000 crowns.

2. England and France to retain their respective claims and pretensions.

2. IN FRANCE, 1590-98.—In aid of the Protestant cause

Origin.—The war between the Roman Catholics and

Protestants in France had assumed its true aspect of a religious contest. Montmorency, head of the former, was slain at St. Denis, and Condé, chief of the latter, at *Jarnac*.

They were replaced, respectively, by young De Guise on the one side,—and young Condé, and Henry, Prince of Navarre, then only sixteen, on the other.

Elizabeth rendered secret aid to the Huguenots during the struggle.

A deceitful peace, intended to lull them into false security, was made with the Protestants by the French Court.

On Aug. 24, 1572, however, occurred the horrible **Massacre of St. Bartholomew's Day**. In Paris alone there perished brave Coligny, 500 other nobles and gentlemen, and 10,000 citizens: in all France at least 30,000 fell. The pretext for this foul crime was an assertion that the Huguenots had conspired to seize Chas. IX.

The English nobles and gentry were so horrified at the event that, to avenge it, they offered to raise 22,000 foot and 4,000 horse,—and transport them to France, and keep them there six months at their own expense. Elizabeth, however, did not just then feel herself in a position to quarrel with France, owing to her ticklish relations with Spain: accordingly, she refused their offer, and, having listened to Chas. IX.'s explanation, continued to maintain outward amity with him, while strongly expressing her disapprobation of his conduct *in re* the massacre.

The Huguenots seemed to receive fresh vigour from what had been meant as a death-blow,—speedily assembled 18,000 men,—and made themselves masters of several towns and fortresses.

At the death of Chas., his successor, Hy. III., wished to mediate between the two parties; but De Guise, under whose influence the King was, formed a **League of the Roman Catholic nobles**, for the suppression of Protestantism, and compelled Hy. to declare himself its head.

The efforts against the Huguenots were then redoubled, and Elizabeth again gave them secret support.

Hy., groaning under the tyranny of the League, caused De Guise, and his brother, to be murdered. He then allied himself to the Huguenots,—but was himself assassinated by a Dominican.

The King of Navarre succeeded, as Hy. IV.

The League, under De Mayenne, brother of De Guise, put forth all its power against this Protestant monarch, and, being supported by the Pope and Philip of Spain, threatened to crush the Huguenots.

Hy. asked aid from Elizabeth, who, having come to an open and victorious rupture with Spain, responded to his appeal.

Events.—In 1590, she sent him £22,000, and 4,000 men under Lord Willoughby. With this assistance, Hy. gained the battle of **Ivry**, (or the "**Battle of the League**,") against the League and Spain,—and marched on Paris, which was, however, relieved by the Duke of Parma.

In 1591, Elizabeth sent over two large forces, one under Norris, the other under Essex, to aid in expelling the Leaguers from Normandy: they behaved bravely, and rendered Hy. great assistance.

In 1593, Hy., finding it to his interest to do so, abjured Protestantism. Elizabeth warmly reproached him; but policy induced her to maintain the alliance. She, accordingly, continued to help him, and a new treaty was entered into, in which it was agreed that peace should be made only by their mutual consent.

English forces took part in breaking the power of the League, and Elizabeth then supported Hy. against Spain until he made peace with that country at **Vervins**, 1598.

In the same year he issued the **Edict of Nantes**, granting toleration and protection to all Protestants in France.

3. WITH SPAIN, 1577-1604.

Origin.—Owing to religious persecution instituted in the Netherlands by Philip, a spirit of rebellion was roused amongst the people, which he made a pretext for destroying their freedom.

The Duke of Alva, a fiend in human shape, was entrusted with the congenial task.

The rights and privileges of the provinces were abolished,—arbitrary and cruel courts, civil and religious, were set up,—and the country became a scene of persecution, bloodshed, confiscation, and terror. 100,000 suffered death,—and thousands were driven into banishment.

Elizabeth sheltered the exiles,—and inflicted a great blow upon Philip by seizing, (unwarrantably), several

Genoese vessels carrying money to Alva, which had been driven into Plymouth and Southampton.

In 1572, Holland and Zealand revolted,—and the Prince of Orange, who had been declared a rebel, and had been deprived of his estates in the Netherlands, headed the movement, and united the revolted cities in a league.

The sovereignty of the revolted provinces was now offered to Elizabeth, if she would aid them ; but as she saw little likelihood of their success, her caution led her to refuse. However, she attempted, though in vain, to mediate on their behalf.

In 1577, the revolt having extended and become formidable, Elizabeth's aid was again sought. Seeing that the Provinces had a fair chance of success, and alarmed at a report that Philip's natural brother, John, contemplated marrying Mary of Scots, and invading England, she agreed to help them.

Events.—In 1577, Eliz. sent over 5,000 foot, and 1,000 horse, and lent £100,000, (to be repaid in a year), on security of several important towns.

Drake attacked the Spanish settlements in S. America, and took some rich galleons.

In 1579, the revolted Provinces, now five in number, signed the *Treaty of Utrecht*, and thus laid the *foundation of the Dutch Republic*. The Prince of Orange became virtually Stadtholder of the new state. He was, however, assassinated by Gérard, with the privity of Philip, in 1584.

After his death, the Prince of Parma made rapid progress in reducing the Provinces, and Elizabeth was once more offered the sovereignty if she would render assistance. She refused the sovereignty, but in 1585 sent over 6,000 men under the Earl of Leicester, who, by agreement, was entitled "Governor-General." She also lent a considerable sum, taking Flushing, Rammekens, and Brill in pledge.

In 1586, Zutphen being besieged by the English and Dutch, Parma sent supplies for its relief, under a heavy escort. Leicester despatched a small body of troops under *Sir Philip Sidney*, to intercept the Spaniards. There followed a severe engagement, which is called the battle of

Zutphen.—Eng. victorious. Sidney mortally wounded.

Beyond this, our troops accomplished nothing, Leicester being thoroughly incompetent as a general.

In the same year, in revenge for Philip detaining English ships, a fleet of twenty sail was fitted out, under *Drake*, to attack the Spaniards in the W. Indies. *St. Domingo*, *Carthagena*, and *St. Iago* were taken,—but restored for large sums, and *Drake* returned with immense riches.

Meanwhile Philip determined to invade and conquer England, calculating that should she fall, the Netherlands must follow. His design was sanctioned by the Pope, who hoped to see England restored, by Philip's agency, to Rome.

Vast preparations were commenced, and the construction of the mighty fleet which was to carry the invading army occupied every port in Philip's dominions.

In 1587, *Drake*, on his return from the W., sailed to destroy Spanish shipping. He burned 100 ships off *Cadiz*,—destroyed immense quantities of stores,—and thus retarded the projected invasion for a year.

The Spaniards, however, besieged *Sluys*, which capitulated. Leicester vainly attempted to relieve it, and was recalled in disgrace.

At length Philip's preparations were complete. The **Invincible Armada** consisted of 130 vessels, (of which 100 were galleons), of 60,000 tons aggregate burthen,—manned by 11,000 sailors,—and carrying 20,000 soldiers, and 3,200 guns.

The fleet was to sail to *Dunkirk*,—embark there 35,000 men, under *Parma*,—and sail thence to the *Thames-Mouth*, and land the troops,—refraining meanwhile from hostilities.

Counter-preparations were carried on in England, in a spirit of general and enthusiastic patriotism, in which Protestants and Romanists equally shared, and subsidies and loans were freely granted.

The force at Elizabeth's command was, however, feeble, (materially), in comparison with the Spanish armaments. The Royal Navy consisted of only 34 ships, mostly of small size, but manned by the finest sailors in the world. The commercial towns were, as usual, required to provide additional vessels. They responded nobly,—London fitting out 30, when asked for 15. The nobility and gentry, also, equipped 43 at their own cost.

The whole naval force assembled consisted of 190 vessels, (most of them very small), of 12,000 tons burthen,—carrying 15,000 men of all arms, and 800 guns, and having on board, as volunteers, large numbers of the noblest and most distinguished men in the country.

It was commanded by the High-Admiral *Charles Howard*, Lord *Effingham*, a kinsman of Elizabeth, and a Roman Catholic. Under him served as Vice-admirals, *Drake*, *Hawkins*, and *Frobisher*, the most distinguished naval commanders of the age.

All males capable of bearing arms were enrolled, and three armies were raised,—a flying column of 38,000, 20,000 to guard the S. Coast, and 20,000 at Tilbury, for the defence of London. These forces, though undisciplined, were full of ardent courage.

Elizabeth herself visited the camp at Tilbury, and, on horseback, in semi-military garb, harangued the troops in a truly Roman speech, urging them to do their duty to their country and religion,—and declaring that she would herself, if needful, lead them into battle, and die rather than survive the ruin and servitude of her country.

Meanwhile the Armada was delayed from sailing by the death of the Admiral, the Marquis of *Santa Croce*, a skillful commander. The *Duke of Medina Sidonia*, an incompetent seaman, was appointed to succeed him. On

May 29, 1588, the Armada sailed from Lisbon. Dispersed and injured by a storm, off Finisterre, it put in at Corunna to refit, and again started, July 12th.

July 19th, it was sighted off the Lizard, and news of its approach brought to Plymouth, where the English fleet had retired in the belief that the expedition was put off for another year.

Joyfully they now put to sea, and saw the Armada beating up Channel in the form of a crescent, extending seven miles from horn to horn.

Howard having given his captains strict orders not to come to close quarters, in order to avoid being boarded, but to cannonade from a distance, the Spanish fleet slowly advanced, harassed by a galling and almost incessant fire from the English vessels, which, being light, manageable, ably-manned, and taking advantage of every change of wind, raked the enemy fore and aft with deadly effect; while the lofty, unwieldy Armada leviathans fired, for the

most part, over the heads of the Englishmen, and were so slow in tacking that, before they could deliver their second broadside, the enemy were out of range. A galleon that had taken fire, and another that had sprung a leak, lagged behind, and were captured by Drake.

July 27th, the Armada arrived off Calais, and anchored, waiting for Parma to put off in transports, and join them.

To prevent this junction, Howard fitted up eight fire-ships, and on the night of the 29th, when a tempest was raging, sent them drifting down on the Armada. The Spaniards, in alarm, cut their cables, and were immediately dispersed by the storm. Howard, who had been reinforced, on his way up Channel, by numbers of vessels fitted out by private generosity, now fell upon them off Gravelines with all his force, and, after a severe action of several hours, totally defeated them, taking and destroying twelve ships, with a loss of only one English vessel.

This proved the death-blow of the expedition.

Parma refused to embark on the shattered fleet, and Sidonia resolved to return to Spain.

The wind, being contrary, and he not daring again to face the English, the Spanish admiral determined to sail home round the N. of Scotland and Ireland.

Howard followed as far as Flamborough Head, and captured a few stragglers, but want of ammunition compelled him to abandon the pursuit. Elizabeth welcomed her victorious heroes at Tilbury.

After passing the Orkneys, the Armada was attacked by a fearful storm, and the coasts of Scotland, Ireland, and Norway were strewn with the wrecks of numbers of the huge galleons.

The remnant reached Spain with difficulty,—ships shattered, and men spirit-broken.

The Spaniards lost, in all, 81 vessels, and 13,000 men.

Philip received the news of this disaster with affected nonchalance; but it was a heavy blow for him, and it was long before the country recovered from the exhaustion caused by the enormous loss.

In 1589, an expedition was sent to replace on the throne of Portugal, (which had, in 1580, been united to Spain), Don Antonio. It consisted of six ships, under Drake, carrying a body of troops under Norris and Essex.

Corunna was attacked, and the ships in harbour there

burned. This exploit forewarned Philip, and, when the English fleet arrived off Lisbon, they found Philip prepared for them, and they were, consequently, unable to obtain supplies. They succeeded in capturing the suburbs of the city; but the forces being wasted to one-half, in consequence of famine, sickness, and drunkenness, they were compelled to abandon the enterprise, and reëmbark.

Before returning, however, they sailed to Vigo,—took and burned it,—and ravaged the neighbouring country.

In 1596, it was reported that Philip was preparing for another expedition against England. It was determined to anticipate him, by an attack upon

Cadiz.—A fleet of 150 ships, under Howard, manned by 7,000 seamen, and carrying 7,000 troops under Essex, sailed from Plymouth, and was reinforced by a squadron of Dutch vessels.

The shipping in the harbour of Cadiz was fired by the commander, Sidonia, to prevent its falling into the hands of the English, who, however, saved and captured two men-of-war.

Essex stormed, and took, the town, by desperate bravery; but a council of war being called, it was decided, (probably through jealousy on Howard's part), not to retain it. It was, accordingly, plundered,—the troops reëmbarked,—and the expedition returned to England, having inflicted damage to the amount of £4,000,000 on the Spaniards, and having achieved the greatest military exploit of English arms between Agincourt and Blenheim.

Howard was, for his share in this enterprise, created Earl of Nottingham; while Essex, to whom alone the glory belonged, was, to his disgust, passed over.

In 1597, it being reported that a Spanish expedition, destined for Ireland, was preparing at Ferroe, and Corunna, a large English fleet was fitted out for the purpose of attacking those towns. It carried 6,000 troops, and was under the joint command of Essex and Raleigh.

Being dispersed and shattered by a storm, the original design was abandoned, and it was determined only to intercept the W. Indian fleet. Owing to misunderstandings between Raleigh and Essex, the greater part of the Spanish galleons escaped; but three from Havannah were captured, and proved so rich that they covered all the expenses of the expedition.

Philip died in 1598; but the war still went on.

Peace was concluded under Jas. I. in 1604,—the chief article in the treaty being an agreement on the part of Jas. no more to aid the people of the Netherlands.

For WARS IN SCOTLAND see "*Scotch Affairs*."

(All the wars of this reign were undertaken for the support of Protestantism. There seems to be no doubt that the Roman Catholic Continental powers had leagued with the Pope for the destruction of Protestantism throughout Europe, and, especially, for the downfall of Elizabeth. It was, consequently, her interest to support the Huguenots, the Dutch, and the Reforming party in Scotland.)

PLOTS AND REBELLIONS.

1. Norfolk's Plot, 1569, and 1572.

Object.—At first, merely to release, and marry, Mary of Scots,—afterwards, to marry Mary, and dethrone Elizabeth, in her favour, by aid of a foreign army.

Norfolk was son of the Earl of Surrey executed by Hy. VIII., and the fourth Duke. He was the premier noble in England, and second-cousin to the Queen. He had incurred her displeasure for urging her to settle the succession, and, according to the French ambassador, she was on the look-out for a chance to arrest him.

He was, however, chosen as chief of the English commission at York to examine into Mary's conduct *in re* Darnley. He appears to have been smitten by her beauty, and to have formed the project of procuring her release, and marrying her, in which he was encouraged by Murray and Maitland, in whose hands he became a mere tool.

Mary was agreeable to the match; but, as it could not take place without Elizabeth's consent, Norfolk proceeded to strengthen himself by the alliance of other nobles, so that when he should prefer his request, the Queen might find him too powerful to be denied.

He found many supporters: amongst others, Leicester professed to favour the scheme, and wrote, urging it upon Mary; but he betrayed all he knew to Elizabeth.

Amongst his confederates were the Earls of Northumberland and Westmoreland, and other zealous R. Catholics, who went beyond Norfolk in *their* aim, which was to

place Mary on the throne. Norfolk discouraged their design; but they had the promise of support from Spain.

Murray, also, professed to favour their design; but betrayed the whole plot to Elizabeth.

By her orders, Norfolk, and several other of the conspirators, were arrested.

Northumberland and Westmoreland escaped being taken, and attempted a rising in the N. They issued a manifesto, demanding the release of Norfolk and the other captives, and the restoration of Roman Catholicism. Being joined by 4,000 followers, they marched to Durham, in whose Cathedral they destroyed the Bibles and Prayer-books, and restored the Mass. Thence they marched to Bramham Moor, in Yorkshire,—but disbanded their forces at the approach of the royal troops under Sussex.

The leaders escaped into Scotland. Westmoreland finally reached the Netherlands,—but Northumberland was imprisoned by Murray in Lochleven Castle. A large number of the insurgents were executed.

The rebellion was renewed by Leonard Dacres,—he was, however, easily defeated by Lord Hunsdon, but managed to escape.

During these risings, Norfolk, though in confinement, gave proof of his loyalty by raising forces for the Queen. Elizabeth's confidence being thus restored, she released him from the Tower, after some months' imprisonment, on his promising not to renew his suit to Mary.

In 1572, in revenge for the seizure of the Genoese vessels, Alva formed a scheme of dethroning Elizabeth by means of a Spanish invading army, supported by a rebellion in England. Having fixed upon Norfolk as his likeliest instrument, he proposed to him to renew his former scheme of marrying Mary, and to add to it that of placing her on the throne by the aid of a home-rising, and a Spanish force.

Norfolk, who had discovered that he had quite lost the Queen's favour, entered into all Alva's plans,—reopened communications with Mary,—and the marriage-contract between them was renewed.

It was arranged that Alva should land with a large force,—that Norfolk, with what force he could raise, should join him,—and that they should march on London, and compel Elizabeth to accept their terms.

By the treachery of a servant of Norfolk, who, being entrusted with a large sum of money and a letter, to carry to some of the conspirators in Scotland, conveyed them instead to Burleigh, the plot was discovered.

Norfolk was arrested,—three of his agents were put to the torture, and incriminated him,—he was then tried, by a jury of twenty-five peers, on three

Charges.—1. That he had contemplated marrying Mary, and had aided her with money, while well aware that she claimed the crown of England.

2. That he had conspired to dethrone Elizabeth, in favour of Mary, by the aid of foreign troops.

3. That he had sent money to Westmoreland and Northumberland, after they had been attainted.

He was condemned of treason, and Elizabeth, after much hesitation, and three countermands, finally, at the instance of the Commons, signed his death-warrant,—which was carried into effect, 1572.

Though “a dupe throughout,”—first of Murray and Maitland, and then of Pius V.’s agents,—he was, unquestionably, guilty of treason, and so merited his fate.

Though of a Roman Catholic family, and leagued with that party in his schemes, he was during the whole of his career a professed Protestant.

At the request of Elizabeth, Morton, the Scotch Regent, delivered Northumberland up to her, and he was executed a few months after for his rebellion of ’69.

Parry’s Plot, 1585.—Dr. Parry, a pervert to Rome, felt and expressed great resentment at the Act ordering Jesuits and seminary priests to quit the kingdom. Being at Milan, he was instigated by his superiors to murder Elizabeth, than which, they alleged, there could be no more meritorious deed. His design is said to have received the Pope’s blessing. Returning to England, he revealed his design to Neville, who betrayed him to the Ministers. He was arrested, and executed as a traitor.

Somerville’s Plot, 1585.—a wild design to assassinate the Queen. Somerville, who was only half-witted, was arrested, and committed suicide in prison.

Babington’s Conspiracy, 1586.

Object.—To assassinate Elizabeth, and place Mary on the throne.

Conspirators. — Ballard, Babington, Savage, Tichbourne, Gage, Barnwell, Donne, Abingdon, Salisbury, Travers, Tilney, and three others.

John Savage, an adventurer, who had "trailed a pike" in Philip's service, in the Netherlands, was induced, by some priests in the English college at Rheims, to undertake the assassination of Elizabeth,—and was sent over to England, with introductions to the most zealous Romanists.

About the same time, John Ballard, a Jesuit of the same college, and subtle intriguer, came over secretly on a mission to England and Scotland, and noting the rebellious spirit existing amongst his co-religionists, formed the plan of assassinating Elizabeth,—placing Mary on the throne,—and reëstablishing Roman Catholicism in the country, by force of foreign arms, aided by an insurrection at home.

Visiting Paris on his return, he opened his design to the Spanish ambassador there, who warmly encouraged him, and promised support from his government.

Adopting the disguise of an officer, and the name "Captain Fortescue," this "silken priest in a soldier's habit" returned to England, and set himself to accomplish his scheme.

He made his first advances to Anthony Babington, a young Derbyshire gentleman of great wealth, intelligence, and accomplishments, and firmly devoted to the Roman Catholic faith.

Previously to this, Babington had, when on his travels, been interested on Mary's behalf by some of her foreign friends, who sent her letters recommending the youth to her friendship. He had, on his return, opened communication with her, and "an interchange of letters took place, which seemed as deeply tinctured with love as with loyalty," but which ceased in consequence of Mary's closer imprisonment.

Being thus predisposed in her favour, Babington hailed delightedly Ballard's advances, and himself suggested that it was indispensable that Elizabeth should be murdered. Ballard informing him that Savage was ready to undertake that matter, Babington urged that to ensure success five others, whom he engaged to provide, should be associated with Savage.

He next devoted himself to procuring the coöperation of his Roman Catholic intimates. He succeeded in en-

listing eleven young gentlemen, who regarded Mary with intense devotion, and entered into the plot more in the spirit of knights-errant of the days of chivalry, than of crafty and treacherous assassins.

Several of them, indeed,—and notably Tichbourne, (Babington's dearest friend),—engaged in the conspiracy out of pure friendship, and refused to connect themselves with the murder of the Queen, which was arranged to take place simultaneously with Mary's release.

Communication was opened with Mary, through the medium of a priest named Gifford, who employed a brewer, that supplied the house with ale, to convey letters to and from Sir Amias Paulet's house, the post-office being a chink, covered with a stone, in the wall of Mary's prison.

Walsingham, as usual, speedily became acquainted with the existence of the plot, and, buying over Gifford, kept himself *au courant* with every detail of the progress of the scheme. All the letters were first carried to him, transcribed by him, and then forwarded to their destination. The conspirators, indeed, seemed to play into his hands, for, to give Mary "some kind of personal acquaintance with them," Babington drew their portraits in a group,—himself in the midst,—and sent it to Mary, inscribed

"Quorsum hæc alio properantibus?"

Walsingham had a copy of this taken, and thus obtained the means of identifying the associates.

When all the evidence needed had been obtained, Ballard was seized. The rest of the gang, taking alarm, dispersed, and concealed themselves,—but were speedily discovered,—imprisoned,—and arraigned.

The presence of this "romantic band of friends" at the bar, and their noble bearing, excited profound interest and sympathy, one of the judges even being so moved as to exclaim, "Oh, Ballard! Ballard! what hast thou done? A sort, (= company), of brave youths, otherwise endued with good gifts, by thy inducement hast thou brought to their utter destruction and confusion!"

Seven pleaded guilty of all the charges laid against them: amongst these were Babington, and Ballard, who "wished all the blame might rest on him, could the shedding of his blood be the saving of Babington's life!"

The other seven, while not denying their privy to the

plot, urged various excuses in palliation of their connection with its originators ; all were, however, found guilty, and sentenced to be hanged and quartered.

The execution occupied two days, the highest in rank suffering on the first day. The hangman commenced his horrible work on Ballard, the rest of the condemned being forced spectators of the scene. The wretched Jesuit was, according to custom, taken from the gallows alive, and the remainder of the sentence carried out on his conscious frame, Babington looking on unmoved, while the rest of his associates turned away their heads in horror. Such was the pity excited by the terrible spectacle on the first day, that Elizabeth, with politic wisdom, ordered that the remainder of the criminals should be ascertained to be dead, before carrying out the second part of the sentence.

Rebellion of the Earl of Essex, 1601.

Elizabeth's harsh treatment of Essex, especially her forbidding him the Court, had roused his resentment ; and when the Queen refused to renew his monopoly of sweet wines, accompanying the denial with a gross and unwarrantable insult, the limits of his forbearance were passed, and, in a species of frenzy, he adopted every possible means to annoy Elizabeth.

He wounded her vanity by speaking of her as an old woman, crooked in body and mind,—outraged her religious and political prejudices by courting the Roman Catholics and Puritans,—especially the latter, whose ministers made Essex House their constant resort, and celebrated daily service there, by the Earl's desire.

Finally, knowing Elizabeth's determined opposition to entertaining the idea of settling the succession, and believing that she had an aversion from its being fixed on James, he entered into communication with that monarch, and proposed that he should sanction and aid a popular rising to compel Eliz. to proclaim him her heir. But Jas. was too wary to allow himself to be entrapped into a scheme which would, if unsuccessful, probably destroy all chance of his becoming King of England.

Gaining confidence from these disloyal essays, he now formed the bold plot of *seizing the Palace,—and compelling the Queen to—*

1. *Dismiss those of her advisers whom he considered his enemies.*

2. *Summon a Parliament,—and, by their aid, reform the Government, and settle the succession.*

A number of his intimates fell in with the scheme.

His measures being suspected, he received a summons to appear before the Council.

Being privately warned of danger, he summoned his associates to meet, and advise with him. They proposed flight,—he scouted the suggestion,—and, finally, it was resolved, as they were not sufficiently strong to seize the Palace, to make an attempt next day to raise the City.

Meanwhile messengers were despatched to all his friends, to say that Cobham and Raleigh had plotted his death, and summoning them to his defence and support.

Next day there assembled at Essex House the Earls of Southampton and Rutland, Lords Sandys and Monteagle and 300 gentlemen, and Essex unfolded to them the alleged schemes against his safety.

Elizabeth, informed of the meeting, sent some of her ministers to inquire into its purport,—Essex had them admitted, and placed them under confinement.

Then, attended by 200 followers, armed with dress-swords only, he sallied forth toward the City, being joined on his way by the Earl of Bedford and Lord Cromwell. Crying out, "For the Queen! for the Queen! a plot is laid for my life!" he proceeded to the house of the Sheriff, on whose support he reckoned, but found it barred against him, the officer leaving by the back-door, to make his way to the Lord Mayor.

The Earl, relying upon his great popularity, had confidently expected a general rising on his behalf amongst the citizens: he was bitterly disappointed. They stared with astonishment,—but not one joined him.

Seeing that his enterprize had miscarried, he attempted to return through the streets, but, finding them blockaded by carriages and carts, he took water to Essex House, and surrendered the same evening to the Earl of Nottingham, while several other of his associates were arrested.

Essex and Southampton were tried by a jury of twenty-five peers, on a charge of treason, for imagining the deposition and death of the Queen. Essex made an abject plea of guilt, and basely betrayed his friends, and he and Southampton were condemned to death.

After considerable delay and reluctance, Elizabeth signed

the death-warrant of her unhappy favourite, who, at the early age of 34, was privately executed in the Tower.

Several of his associates,—including his secretary, Cuffe, a fine classic,—were also executed: Southampton was spared, but kept in prison during the remainder of the reign.

(All the plots of this reign, excepting that of Essex, were Roman Catholic conspiracies, encouraged by the Romanist continental nations for the purpose of destroying Elizabeth, and reëstablishing the ancient faith of the country.)

TREATIES.

Treaty of Cateau-Cambresis (in French Flanders), 1559,—between England and France,—ending the war begun under Mary.

Terms.—1. Calais, and the other places in Picardy taken from the English, to be restored at the end of eight years, on penalty of payment by France of 500,000 crowns.

2. The King of France and his successors to be still under obligation to restore the towns, even if the fine should be paid.

3. Either party engaging in hostilities against the other to forfeit all claim on the towns.

4. France to give hostages for the fulfilment of Article 1. This treaty was not expected, or intended to be ratified; but was a mere farce to preserve the honour of England!

STATUTES.

Act declaring the validity of Elizabeth's succession to the Throne, 1559.

First General Poor-Law, 1601.

Provisions.—1. Overseers of the poor, in every parish, to set to work the children of those unable to maintain them, and all poor persons not capable of labour, but not exercising themselves in any employment.

2. Overseers to levy taxes for—

(1.) Buying wool, and other raw materials, to furnish labour for the poor.

(2.) Relieving the lame, blind, old, and impotent.

(3.) Putting apprentice children chargeable to the parish.

3. Churchwardens and overseers to build poor-houses at the cost of the parish, *for the impotent only.*

4. J.P.'s to—

(1.) Commit to the House of Correction, or to prison, all able-bodied paupers refusing to work.

(2.) Compel those who were in a position to do so, to support their children, grandchildren, and parents.

This Act remained in force, with some modifications, till 1834.

ECCLESIASTICAL AND RELIGIOUS AFFAIRS.

Primates.—Parker, Grindal, Whitgift.

RESTORATION OF PROTESTANTISM, AND CONSOLIDATION AND PROGRESS OF THE CHURCH OF ENGLAND.

From the moment of her accession, it became manifest that Elizabeth had set her mind upon reëstablishing the Reformed religion.

Upon the bishops coming to pay their respects to her, she received graciously all but Bonner, from whom she turned with evident loathing: he was speedily thrown into prison, where he died,—while those driven into exile by Mary were recalled, and those in confinement for their religion were released.

In order to reassure the Romanists, the Queen retained eleven of Mary's Councillors, to whom, however, she added eight Protestants, amongst whom were Sir Wm. Cecil, and Sir Nicolas Bacon, who was created Lord Keeper of the Privy Seal.

By the advice of these supporters, she decided to proceed gradually in restoring Protestantism, and to take no important steps until the Houses of Legislature should assemble.

Before the meeting of Parliament, however, Elizabeth—

1. Ordered that in her own chapel the Litany should be used in English, and the Elevation of the Host cease,—and then commanded all churches to conform to her service.

2. Issued a proclamation forbidding preaching, (in order to prevent seditious utterances from the pulpit), and allowing the Epistle, Gospel, and Ten Commandments to be read in English,—but without exposition.

3. Appointed, in order to compare King Ed.'s two Prayer-Books, with a view to compiling a revised Liturgy, a committee of eight, consisting of Drs. Bill, Parker, and May, and Sir Thos. Smith, (who had remained in England during the Marian Persecution),—and Whitehead, Grindal,

Pilkington, and Dr. Cox, (returned exiles), to whom were afterwards added Sandys, Archbp. York, and Guest, (afterwards Bp. of Rochester), a deeply learned man, who took a prominent part in the revision.

(The bishops were so scandalised by these measures that it proved a difficult matter to find one who would crown Elizabeth: however, at length Oglethorpe, of Carlisle, was induced to undertake the office.)

4. Parker, a Protestant, was made Primate in place of Pole.

Parliament met 1559, and in one session completely restored Protestantism, by law.

The following were its *leading measures* :—

1. Lately-erected monasteries suppressed.
2. Tithes and *annates* restored to Crown.
3. All the laws of Ed. VI. concerning religion reënacted.
4. The Act of Supremacy was passed, being a revival of that of Hy. VIII., and providing that all beneficed clergymen, and civil servants should take an oath acknowledging Elizabeth Supreme Governor of the Church, as well as of the State, in England, and renouncing all foreign jurisdiction.

(The word "Governor" was used instead of the title, "Head," assumed by Hy., in order to avoid unnecessarily offending Romanists.)

The Act also conferred upon the Queen the right of appointing bishops.

Penalties.—1. Those refusing to take the oath of supremacy to forfeit benefice or other office.

2. Anyone maintaining, by writing or speech, the supremacy in England of a foreign prince, to lose goods and chattels for first offence,—incur the penalties of *Præmunire* for second,—and be adjudged guilty of Treason for third.

All the Marian bishops refused the oath, and were, consequently, degraded from their sees,—excepting Kitchen, of Llandaff, who had received his mitre, as a Roman Catholic prelate, from Hy. VIII., and retained it by changing his creed to suit that of each new sovereign. It was punningly said of him that "he had always loved the *Kitchen* better than the *Church*!"

3. The Commission for revising the Liturgy, who had been aided in their labours by some of the Council, and

considerably influenced in their labours by Elizabeth, presented to the consideration of the House

The Prayer-Book of Queen Elizabeth. It was King Ed.'s second Book, of 1552, with, however, some important alterations, which were chiefly intended to retain all moderate Roman Catholics in the Church of England.

The *principal changes* made in this revision were—

1. A larger latitude in vestments, and ornaments, was allowed.

2. In the *Communion Service*,

(1.) The sentence employed, at the distribution of the Elements, in Ed.'s first Book, was combined with that which superseded it in the second,—and thus a declaration was formed which admitted of believers in the Real Presence participating in the Eucharist.

(2.) The Rubric at the end of the Service, in Ed.'s Book, declaring that no adoration was intended by kneeling at the reception of the Elements, was omitted.

3. In the *Litany*—

(1.) The Deprecation,

“From the tyranny of the Bishop of Rome, and all his detestable enormities,

“*Good Lord! deliver us,*”

was omitted.

(2.) The *Prayers for the Queen's Majesty*, the *Clergy*, and the *People*, and the *Collect*, “*O God! whose nature and property,*” &c., were added.

4. Elizabeth was styled “*Our Gracious Queen.*”

This revised service passed the Commons by a unanimous vote, and the Lords after a slight opposition.

It was enforced by an

Act of Uniformity,—forbidding worship in any form but that of the Church of England as set forth in the revised **Liturgy**, which was ordered to come into use on and from the approaching feast of John Baptist.

Penalties.—1. Any minister using any but the established Liturgy, to lose goods and chattels for first offence,—to be imprisoned one year for second,—and to be confined for life for a third.

2. Anyone wilfully absent from church on Sundays, or holidays, to be fined 1s. for each lapse.

A General Visitation of the Clergy, to enforce unifor-

mity, followed, in the same year; and out of 9,400 clergymen, only 189 refused to sign a declaration that the new Liturgy was "in accordance with the true word of God."

The 189 resigned, or were deprived of, their benefices, and, from their refusal to subscribe the Act of *Uniformity*, they, (and successive emigrants from the Church), were called "*Nonconformists*."

1559, a Primer, like that of 1545, published.

1561, a Revised Calendar issued.

1562, Catechism revised.

" Articles reduced to 39, and ratified by Convocation and Parliament,—“the finishing stroke of the Reformation in England.”

(The Articles drawn up by Cranmer and Ridley, with the advice of Bucer, Martyr, and, perhaps, Cox, had never been confirmed by Parliament or Convocation, but imposed merely by Ed.'s authority.)

Sternhold and Hopkins's *Old* (metrical) *Version* of the Psalms appeared. It was composed in consequence of an *injunction of the Queen*, in 1559, allowing the singing of “an hymn, or such like song, to the praise of Almighty God,” at the commencement or close of Morning or Evening Prayer.

1564, Second Book of Homilies published,—composed chiefly by Jewell.

TRANSLATION OF SCRIPTURES.

Parker's, or the Bishop's Bible, pub. 1568,—prepared by fifteen translators, mostly bishops, under Parker's superintendence.

THE ROMAN CATHOLICS UNDER ELIZABETH.

The Act of Uniformity prohibited *in toto* both public and private celebration of Romanist worship. Its private exercise, however, was, during the early part of the reign, winked at in the case of numbers of persons of high rank,—but a general prosecution of offenders against the statute was commenced as soon as it had become law.

1561, *Sir Edward Waldegrave and lady* were sent to the *Tower*, for keeping a Roman Catholic chaplain, and hearing Mass at home,—and many others suffered for the like offence.

1562, a *Popish priest* being discovered in a lady's house,

Grindal proposed to put him to the torture, that he might betray those whom he knew as offenders against the Act.

Up to this time the Romanists had been, almost without exception, quiet, loyal, and the majority of them had conformed to the Church of England.

Pius IV. had, certainly, in answer to her announcing to him her succession, ordered Elizabeth to lay aside the title of Queen, until he should decide on her claims: to this she had returned a truly English reply in simply withdrawing her ambassador from the Papal Court. But no step was, in consequence, taken by the Pope to withdraw Elizabeth's Roman Catholic subjects from their allegiance,—his successor, Pius V., endeavouring, on the contrary, to conciliate the Queen, and effect a compromise between the two Churches.

The rigours to which they found themselves subjected now began, however, to excite discontent and opposition. Many fled abroad for safety, and employed themselves henceforth in plots against Elizabeth. The deprived Papist clergy, taking advantage of the excited state of feeling of their lay co-religionists, added fuel to the flames by publishing pamphlets denouncing conformity, while many of the party roused the hopes and expectations of their fellows by prophecies of Elizabeth's speedy death.

These seditious proceedings of the Romanists, and a reported conspiracy, by Cardinal Pole's nephews and others, to set Mary on the throne by French aid, reacted on themselves in yet severer measures being adopted against them. The first of these was an

Act "for the Assurance of the Queen's royal power over all estates and subjects within her dominions," 1562, ordering *all who had taken a degree at Oxford or Cambridge, or had entered Holy Orders,—all lawyers, or legal officers,—to take the Oath of Supremacy* whenever required by a bishop, or a Commissioner under the Great Seal.

Penalties.—For first refusal, the offender to incur Præmunire,—after three months' imprisonment, the oath to be again tendered, and, if still refused, to be adjudged guilty of Treason.

Members of Parliament were also required to take the Oath before being allowed to sit in the Commons,—a measure which almost banished Romanists from the House.

For the next six years there were no violent demon-

strations on either side, though we find numbers of persons harassed for non-attendance at church,—for harbouring priests,—and for sending money to exiles, while many law-students of the Inns of Court, (where Popery flourished), were questioned, before the Star Chamber, as to their religion,—and, on refusing to answer, were imprisoned in the Fleet.

After she fell into Elizabeth's hands, the Papists of England, Scotland, and Ireland made Mary's cause their own, banded together against her royal gaoler, and greatly increased the danger of her position.

1570, Pius V. issued, in support of her rebellious subjects, a Bull, assuming to deprive Elizabeth of all title to the Crown,—to absolve her subjects from their allegiance,—and to anathematize the Prayer-Book, which, up till then, had not been objected to at Rome.

A copy of this precious document was affixed to the palace of the Bishop of London, by a fanatic named John Felton: he allowed himself to be taken,—and was executed, glorying in the deed he had done.

This Bull drove out of the Church of England all those Papists who had hitherto conformed to her worship. Henceforth the Roman Catholics formed a distinct sect, engaged, under Papal authority and benediction, in constant plots for the destruction of the English Sovereign.

The league on Mary's behalf, and the dangerous results of the Bull, led to renewed activity against the Romanists. Two severe penal statutes were passed:—

The first enacted that—

1. *Persons publishing Bulls from Rome, or giving priestly absolution, or reconciling anyone to the Romish Church, or being so reconciled, should incur the penalties of High Treason.*

2. *Persons bringing into the realm crosses, pictures, or other superstitious things consecrated by the Pope, or by his authority, should incur the penalties of Præmunire.*

The Second, (aimed specially at Mary's partizans), made it *High Treason* to—

1. *Affirm that anyone but Elizabeth was rightful Sovereign.*

2. *Proclaim her heretic, schismatic, tyrant, infidel, or usurper.*

3. *Claim a right to the throne, or usurp it during the Queen's life.*

4. *Affirm that the statutes do not bind the title to the Crown, and its descent.*

It also enacted that

Anyone writing, printing, or uttering, during Elizabeth's life, any work, affirming, (before the same has been established by Parliament), that any person, (excepting the Queen's natural issue), was, or ought to be, heir and successor to the Throne, to be imprisoned one year and lose half his goods for first offence,—and, for second, to incur penalties of Præmunire.

These fresh laws, of course, greatly aggravated the Roman Catholics.

From Douay, a Jesuit College, founded by Philip, specially for the education of Englishmen for the Romish Church, large numbers of priests were constantly passing into England, to keep disaffection glowing, and to excite fresh schemes against the Throne.

1577, Mayne, the first Popish priest that suffered death under the penal statutes of the reign, was hanged at Launceston, solely for his religion: other like executions soon followed.

About 1580 the refugee priests redoubled their exertions, and, Parliament having become more decidedly Protestant than ever, their efforts were countered by a sweeping measure passed

1581, enacting that

All persons absenting themselves from church, (unless hearing the Anglican service at home,) to forfeit £20 for each month's such absence, and anyone not paying the fine within three months, to be sent to prison until promising conformity.

Subsequently it was enacted that, in default of payment of fine, the Queen could seize all the offender's goods, and two-thirds of his lands.

This new enactment was rigidly enforced, and caused great suffering. Henceforth the name of "*Popish recusants*" was applied to Roman Catholic absentees from church.

In the same year, several Douay Jesuits,—amongst whom was Campian, an eminent scholar, and formerly a Protestant,—were arrested on a charge of "compassing and imagining the Queen's death." There was no proof of the accusation; but they were required to declare that

Eliz. was lawful sovereign, spite of the Pope's deprivation. Those who assented, were pardoned ; but others, evading the question, were executed,—amongst the latter being Campian, who was previously racked to compel him to disclose the names of Romanist gentlemen with whom he had conversed.

Torture was now constantly resorted to,—“The rack seldom stood idle in the Tower for all the latter part of Elizabeth's reign.”

Fresh conspiracies against Eliz. being hatched, chiefly by the Jesuits, in favour of Mary, *two decisive steps* were taken in

1584.—1. An Act was passed commanding that

(1.) *All Jesuits, and other Popish priests, should leave the Kingdom within 40 days, or be adjudged traitors.*

(2.) *Anyone harbouring a Popish priest, should be indictable for felony ; and anyone refusing to betray a Romish ecclesiastic should be fined and imprisoned.*

(3.) *All students in foreign seminaries should return within six months, and take the Oath of Supremacy, or be adjudged traitors.*

(4.) Persons sending their children to seminaries abroad to be fined, in future, £100 for each offence.

2. An Association for the protection of Elizabeth, was formed, at the suggestion of Leicester and others, and aimed specially at Mary.

The members swore to—

(1.) Withstand and prosecute, by every means, all who should attempt, or abet, anything to the harm of the Queen's person.

(2.) To repudiate and prosecute to death anyone pretending to a title to the Crown, for whose succession anything should be attempted or done to the harm of the Queen.

(This article was monstrous, as it virtually pledged the members, in case an attempt were made on Eliz.'s life, to execute Mary, whether she were privy to the deed, or not.)

This Association received the sanction of Parliament, in an Act, “for the security of the Queen's person, and continuance of the realm in peace,”

1. Providing that, *if any invasion or rebellion should be made by, or for, any person laying claim to the Throne at the Queen's decease, or if anything should be imagined, (with the privy of any such person,) tending to the*

Queen's hurt, a number of Peers, Privy Councillors, and Judges, commissioned by Eliz., should examine, and give judgment upon, such offence,—after which all against whom such judgment should be delivered, should be for ever disabled from making any claim to the Crown.

2. Appointing a Council of Regency, in case of Eliz.'s assassination, to carry on the government, settle the succession, and take vengeance for the murder.

(It will be seen that the Act does not embody the iniquitously unjust Article 2 of the Association.)

After the death of Mary, the great rallying-point of the hostile Romanists was destroyed. Henceforth they were comparatively quiet, affording no pretext for severity.

Notwithstanding this, and their patriotic behaviour on the occasion of the Armada, the penal laws continued to be put in operation against them till the end of the reign, and fresh vexatious statutes were passed.

1591, an Act passed, *forbidding all persons to harbour anyone of whose conformity they were not assured.*

The number of Roman Catholic martyrs who suffered death in this reign is computed at 204 ;—15 for denying the Queen's supremacy,—126 for executing their ministry,—the rest for being reconciled to the Romish Church : many, moreover, died in gaol, while large numbers were punished by fines and imprisonment.

It is customary to state that the martyrs under Elizabeth suffered for treason,—not religion, and that, consequently, the persecutions of the two reigns are altogether different in character. But, excepting those who were executed for plots against the Queen, this is not correct. The penal laws under which they suffered *made* the belief and practice of Roman Catholicism felonious and treasonable, and, consequently, victims to those laws were *nominally* done to death *as* felons and traitors ; but, *actually*, they were martyrs to religion, and the Elizabethan persecution is almost as black as the Marian. The only *real* difference between them was that no female martyrs were executed under Elizabeth. It may be true that the majority of those who suffered might have saved themselves by denying the Pope's supremacy. But their refusal to do this was not treason, according to the spirit of our laws, which recognize no treason without some overt act.

The statutes against Roman Catholics were frequently

unjust and unneeded, and nearly all of them were originated in ferocious bigotry, panic apprehension, or Eliz's arbitrary spirit, which led her to desire absolute submission of body and soul to her will.

Had she been wise, and granted toleration or connivance to the few Romanists who refused to conform at the commencement of her reign, a few years would, probably, have seen them all included within the Anglican Church; while, at any rate, she would have saved herself from the terrors and dangers with which she was surrounded, more or less, throughout her reign.

THE NONCONFORMISTS UNDER ELIZABETH.

The returned Marian exiles, together with a large number of clergymen who had remained in England during the Persecution, felt dissatisfied with the compromise, in the revised Liturgy, between the Roman Catholic and Protestant faiths.

But both these parties, with very few exceptions, thinking the peace of the Church, and uniformity of worship, of greater importance than their own private opinion, gave their assent to the new Prayer-Book, and remained in the Church, while cherishing the hope and design of being able to effect in time all the alterations they desired.

These ultra-reformers became gradually known in the early part of this reign as *Puritans*, or *Precisians*.

In 1562 they proposed in Convocation the abolition of—

1. Saints' Days.
2. The sign of the Cross in Baptism.
3. Chanting, and the organ.
4. The surplice.
5. Kneeling at the reception of the Elements in the Communion.
6. Certain words and phrases in the Liturgy, that savoured of Popery.

These proposed reforms were lost by one vote only,—58 being in favour of them, and 59 against them.

The moderate Puritan clergy accepted their defeat obediently; the extreme section of them openly violated uniformity.

In London and the large towns, which were intensely Protestant, they had the goodwill of the majority of the people, large numbers of whom refused to attend the

churches where the authorized Liturgy was used in full, while the ministers who adhered to the prescribed form were publicly insulted.

Speedily growing in numbers and influence, Elizabeth's earnest and angry attention was attracted to this formidable movement.

She was, both on principle and for personal reasons, bitterly opposed to the Puritans, and, consequently, instead of attempting any compromise, as she had done in the case of the Papists, she determined either to crush them into conformity, or to drive them out of their benefices, and exact a stern penalty for their daring independence.

Cecil, Walsingham, and other of her advisers, who mistrusted the Roman Catholic proclivities of the Anglican party, and recognised in these hardy Nonconformists the true bulwark against Rome, in vain used their efforts to induce her to adopt mild measures. Led by Parker, she commenced her crusade against this new enemy.

1565, she issued "Advertisements," containing orders and regulations for the discipline of the clergy,—based upon the revised Liturgy.

She then summoned before an Ecclesiastical Commission, Sampson, Dean of Christ Church, and Humphrey, President of Magdalen, Oxford, on a charge of refusing to wear the customary vestments, and Sampson, being resolute, was deprived of his deanery.

At Parker's instigation, Elizabeth next issued a Proclamation requiring conformity in the use of vestments, and in other matters of discipline.

Parker then summoned before himself and Grindal, Bp. of London, (who, being himself a thorough Puritan, unwillingly obeyed his Primate's command), all the London clergy, and called upon them to comply with the Proclamation. Thirty-seven,—most of whom were conspicuous for their high character and talents,—refused, and were deprived of their livings.

These ejected ministers, not feeling themselves justified in ceasing to preach, began to form separate assemblies in London,—meeting their congregations by stealth, in order to avoid arrest.

This was the origin of Dissent.

The Queen and Parker were soon down upon these secret services.

June, 1587, a company of over 100 Nonconformists having met for worship in Plummer's Hall, under pretext of celebrating a wedding, were seized, and 15 of them sent to prison,—this being the first punishment in England of Protestant Dissenters.

The objections of the Nonconformists had been confined, at first, entirely to the Liturgy, but increased in number with the progress of years, and, in addition, they gradually developed the principle which is to-day the chief ground of Dissent,—viz., the unlawfulness of a State Church.

The first to teach this doctrine plainly was Thos. Cartwright, Margaret Professor of Theology, who, in 1570, constituted the first regularly-organized Dissenting Church.

1572, he published an "Admonition to the Parliament," calling upon them to reform alleged abuses in the Church of England, and vigorously and learnedly maintaining that *princes should have no jurisdiction in spiritual matters,—and that civil magistrates ought not to ordain ceremonies, or determine controversies, as long as these do not trench on their temporal authority.*

1571, the 39 Articles, being revised, and made to stand as they do now, were submitted to Parliament. The Nonconformist party had grown so strong, that they succeeded in passing a resolution that subscription should be required to those Articles only containing confessions of faith, and not to those establishing Church authority and discipline.

Notwithstanding this, the Bishops continued to demand full subscription, and many who refused were deprived.

The publication of Cartwright's views roused Parker to redoubled efforts, and even Sandys and Grindal joined him, in alarm at the new tenets,—books were suppressed,—and preachers and hearers alike prosecuted.

Under Grindal's primacy, however, they enjoyed a season of quiet,—rudely broken at the accession to power of Whitgift, the most inveterate enemy of the Puritans, whether in or out of the Church.

Almost immediately upon his promotion he issued Articles for the Observance of Discipline, which—

1. *Prohibited preaching, reading the Scriptures, and catechizing in private dwellings, should any not belonging to the household be present.*

2. *Exacted, from every minister, subscription to the*

Queen's supremacy,—to the *lawfulness* of the Book of *Common Prayer*, and of the *Ordination Service*,—and to the truth of the whole 39 *Articles*.

This was a potent and effectual measure. Large numbers of the clergy had never subscribed to some one or more of the matters under 2; while others, who *had* subscribed, had since altered their views, but continued in the Church. Now, however, each individual minister was put to the test, and the Church purged of nearly all its Puritan clergy, for large numbers, refusing to subscribe, were deprived.

The damage sustained by the Church, in consequence of this Exodus, was most serious. Amongst the expelled, she reckoned her brightest and best-trained intellects, and, on their departure, was left with scarcely a dozen ministers who could preach a sermon!

To still further sift the remaining clergy, Whitgift, and his brother bishops who were like-minded, made a practice of administering the oath *ex officio* to all ministers suspected of Puritan leanings.

Burleigh protested against these measures with great warmth, but could not prevent them, as Whitgift, with his official power and Ecclesiastical Courts, was beyond his reach. The shrewd politician, however, pointed out to Eliz. the bad effect it must have to allow her foreign foes to see that there was division amongst her Protestant subjects, on whom her strength almost entirely depended.

From 1588 onwards, a number of pamphlets, chiefly anonymous, appeared, attacking Episcopacy. The most famous were signed "*Martin Marprelate*," and consisted mainly of coarse and virulent abuse.

Penry, an ardent young Welshman, was suspected of being the author,—arrested, and tried, (by an Act passed some years before, making the publication of seditious libels against the Queen's government a capital felony), for a pamphlet reflecting on Elizabeth,—condemned, and executed, 1593.

Udal, a Nonconformist minister, was tried *by the same statute* for an alleged libel *on the bishops*. To bring the Act to bear upon him, it was pleaded that in decrying the bishops, he was *indirectly* libelling the Queen!

He denied writing the pamphlet,—but of course the jury found him guilty. Whitgift, however, saw that his

execution would be too monstrous: he was pardoned at the Primate's desire,—but died from the effects of his imprisonment.

1590, the Nonconformists set up a form of Church government, based on the Presbyterian model, and the ministers subscribed to a Puritan book of discipline.

For these innovations, Cartwright and his associates were summoned before the Court of High Commission, and refusing the oath *ex officio*, they were remanded to the Fleet, and the case removed to the Star Chamber. The judges at first proposed to banish them for life; but they were at length released on giving sureties that they would be quiet, and after answering respectfully some questions about the Queen's supremacy.

The Nonconformists having gained a great ascendancy in the Commons, and Elizabeth's advisers assuring her that their tenets tended to overturn the civil government and institutions, as well as the constitution and rites of the Church of England, in

1593, the severest law yet passed against them was enacted:—*Anyone above 16 who should absent himself from church for a month to be imprisoned*—with a view of inducing conformity: *if not submitting within three months, to abjure the realm*,—and, if returning without the Queen's leave, to be put to death as a felon.

This sweeping measure drove thousands to Holland.

Notwithstanding this, the Nonconformists were more numerous and powerful at the end of the reign than at the beginning.

They were of *two classes*:—

1. Those who would have remained in the Church if they might, and who were always ready to return to it.

2. Those who had quitted the Church at first by compulsion, but had, since leaving it, become separatists on principle.

These were called Barrowists or Brownists, from Barrow and Brown, two of their leading men,—and were the originals of the Independents.

Their distinctive doctrine of Church government was that each congregation should choose its own minister and rule itself.

Two of the sect, Barrow and Greenwood, suffered on a charge of spreading seditious writings.

It was one of the most impolitic acts in Elizabeth's whole reign to force the Puritans out of the Church. A little prudence and forbearance would have prevented all rupture, and to-day, probably, we should see all English Protestants united in one church.

Yet, we cannot regret the rise and growth of the Non-conformist party, for to their existence we owe the civil liberty which our forefathers won under the Stuarts.

Elizabeth's treatment of the bishops and clergy was characterized by her customary haughtiness and contempt.

A law was passed disabling ecclesiastical proprietors from granting away lands, save on 21 years' lease; but exception was made in favour of the Queen, who, with some of her favourites, preyed on the Church estates all through the reign.

THE COURT OF HIGH COMMISSION.

Origin.—The first idea of such a tribunal seems to have been suggested by the *Inquisition*: the foundation of it was laid by Mary, who, 1557, granted a commission to certain bishops and others to enquire after heresies,—and punish non-attendance, and misconduct, at church. They were to proceed by witnesses, and any other means they could devise,—and might compel witnesses to answer on oath any questions likely to elicit the information they sought.

By a clause in the *Act of Supremacy*, Elizabeth was empowered to appoint commissioners as often, and for as long a time, as she pleased, to exercise jurisdiction in all ecclesiastical affairs.

Accordingly, several temporary commissions had sat during the first half of the reign, but, at Whitgift's suggestion, a more powerful and arbitrary tribunal,

The Court of High Commission was established, 1583.

Composition.—Forty-four commissioners,—of whom twelve were bishops, many more Privy Councillors, and the rest clergymen and civilians: three members, one of whom must be a bishop, formed a quorum.

Functions.—To enquire into all offences, misdemeanours, and contempts, contrary to the tenor of the Acts of Supremacy and Uniformity, and other statutes for the regulation of ecclesiastical affairs;—and to take special

cognizance of all heresies and schisms, absences from church, seditious books, conspiracies, false reports, and slanders, contrary to those Acts,—of doctrines held by clergymen in contravention of the 39 Articles,—and of immorality and vice. Its jurisdiction embraced the whole country.

Method of Procedure.—By jury, witnesses, or any other means that the Commissioners might see fit to adopt. To all suspected persons they might administer the oath termed *ex officio*, which bound them to answer any question put to them !

Punishments inflicted.—Spiritual censure, deprivation, fines, and imprisonment.

The power of this tribunal was greatly enlarged during the rest of the reign, until it became a terrible engine of oppression ; but this was not done without opposition on the part of Parliament.

The year after its establishment, the Commons noticed it as a grievance, for which Elizabeth, in her speech, at the close of the session, soundly rated them.

1593, Morrice, Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster, moved for a reformation of the abuses of the Bishops' Courts, and the C. of H. Commission. Elizabeth had him arrested by the Serjeant of the House,—dismissed from office,—struck off the rolls,—and imprisoned for several years in Tilbury Castle.

VARIOUS MATTERS.

The Plague, 1562, was brought over by Warwick's army from Havre : large numbers of persons perished throughout the country,—20,000 in London alone.

Censorship of the Press.—Mary had passed a penal law against authors and publishers of seditious writings. Elizabeth frequently put this statute in force,—and on one occasion condemned John Stubbs, (a zealous Puritan, and brother-in-law of Cartwright), the author of an alleged seditious book, and his publisher and printer, to have their right hands cut off ! Some of the lawyers opposed the sentence, alleging that the Act was only a temporary one, and became null at Mary's death : one of these, a Justice of the Common Pleas, was so severely reprimanded that he resigned office : another was sent to the Tower ! Another offender was hanged.

Holinshed, the Chronicler, maimed his great work, through fear of Elizabeth, and Giles Fletcher, having written the "*Russian Commonwealth*," in which the tyranny practised in that country is detailed, was forbidden to publish it, by the Queen, who interfered at the earnest entreaty of her Russian merchants.

To prevent the circulation of Roman Catholic writings against herself, the Queen also forbade the importation of books from beyond seas; but, as it was important to know "what arms the enemies of England, and of her religion, were fabricating," a licence was granted to an Italian merchant to make abroad a collection of all such works, and place them with the Archbishop and Privy Council.

The English press, though at the mercy of Government, was not fully and absolutely licensed till, in 1583, at Whitgift's inspiration, the Star Chamber issued an ordinance for the regulation of the Press.

Provisions.—1. Every printer to certify the number of his presses, to the Stationers' Court,—on pain of their being defaced, and his suffering one year's imprisonment.

2. No presses to be allowed save in London, and one at each University.

3. Printers who had begun business within six months, to cease work,—no fresh ones to set up, until the reduction of the *present excess* to such a limit as should seem good to the Primate and the Bp. of London,—and all vacancies occurring in the number fixed, to be filled by candidates selected by the Stationers' Co., their choice, however, to be subject to the approbation of the Ecclesiastical Commissioners.

4. No one to print any matter until approved by the Primate and the Bp. of London,—excepting law-publishers, and the Queen's printers, who required the licence of the Chief Justice only.

5. Stationers' Co. to search houses and shops of printers and booksellers,—seize all books printed in contravention of the above regulations,—destroy the presses,—and bring offenders before the Council.

6. Anyone selling books printed in contravention of this ordinance to be imprisoned three months.

Whitgift took care to have this measure carried out with the greatest rigour, and not only suppressed Romanist and Puritan works, but, taking mean advantage of his

power, actually vetoed the theological writings of those divines from whose views he differed!

Immense numbers of political pamphlets were burned during this reign.

The censorship of the press was, undoubtedly, originated in the Inquisition. The first *Index* of books prohibited by Rome was drawn up at the Council of Trent.

Elizabeth and the Succession.—The Queen had as great an objection to settling the succession of the Crown, as she had to marry.

Parliament constantly urged the matter upon her in vain, and upon this question there arose between them the most serious and bitter conflicts.

1563, Parliament, alarmed by a recent illness of the Queen, begged her to order the succession, by confirming Hy's will, or otherwise. She replied courteously, but firmly, that the subject was distasteful to her.

1566, in consequence of the birth of Prince James of Scotland, she was again pressed on the same point. The Council first urged it upon her,—she replied angrily, declaring that, as long as she lived, she would make no disposition of the Crown, for she well remembered that, when she lived at Hatfield, all Mary's enemies and malcontents came to pay court to her,—that if she chose an heir, probably the like would again occur,—and that "she would not be buried while she was living, as her sister was."

In the Commons, a subsidy was demanded, and, in addition to several other objections to its being granted, one member declared that the settlement of the Crown was of more importance than subsidies. The whole House raised an affirmative outcry, and decided to refuse the money until the succession should be fixed.

The chief lords and several bishops waited on the Queen, and communicated the decision of the House. She was almost beside herself with rage,—declared that the Commons were rebellious, and dared not have acted thus to her father,—that it was not for subjects to compel their sovereign,—and that she should please herself, and cared not what resolutions Parliament might pass, as they were null without her consent. Then, feeling herself compelled to give something like a definite answer, she told them, with that elegant politeness of address peculiar to her

wrathful moods, that the affair was "of much too great importance to be declared to a *pack of hare-brains*,"—that she would advise with six of the most able men in the kingdom, and then announce her decision.

Meanwhile she forbade the peers her presence till they should make their submission, and sent a message to the Commons commanding them to proceed no further in the business.

It was a critical time. The Lords contemplated the choice of a successor by Parliament, without Eliz.'s consent,—the Commons continued their debates, in spite of the Queen's prohibition,—and the French ambassador fed the hopes of his Court by broad hints at imminent insurrection and civil war.

But Elizabeth's prudence and self-control saved her. Reflection showed her that she was in an untenable and dangerous position, and she determined on retreat. She restored the Lords to favour, and withdrew her prohibition from the Commons, with assurances of her regard, and a promise that she would settle everything to their satisfaction. So gracefully was her submission made that the Commons were in ecstasies, returned her prayers and thanks, and voted the postponed subsidy.

Thus happily ended the most serious disagreement that occurred during Elizabeth's reign between herself and her Parliament.

1593, Peter Wentworth moved, and Sir Thos. Bromley seconded, a petition to Elizabeth, urging her to appoint her successor. Her reply was the committal to the Tower of both gentlemen, and two others, parties to the motion.

This Parliament proving extremely obsequious, did not take up the question; but voted the subsidy, and even increased it in amount, at the request of the Peers.

When her last illness seized her, her "perverse dislike to naming a successor" overpowered any anxiety she might have felt on the subject, and she volunteered no mention of the subject.

Her ministers, however, were extremely anxious, and when it became apparent that her end was approaching, determined to ask her wishes in the matter.

Accordingly, on the Tuesday before her death, the Lord Admiral, the Lord Keeper, and Sir Robert Cecil repaired

to her room, and, surrounding her bed, Nottingham told her that they came in the name of the Council "to know her pleasure who should succeed."

She replied, "I told you my seat had been the seat of Kings, and *I will have no rascal to succeed me. And who should succeed me but a King?*"

The lords being perplexed by this "dark speech," Cecil ventured to ask what she meant by saying that no rascal should succeed her.

"Whereto she replied, that her meaning was that a King should succeed: 'And who,' quoth she, 'should that be but our cousin of Scotland?'"

The next day, after the Primate and other divines had been with her, the three lords again visited her, and asked her if she adhered to her yesterday's resolution.

She was now speechless, but "*suddenly heaving herself upwards in her bed, and putting her arms out of bed, she held her hands jointly over her head in manner of a crown.*"

The lords naturally interpreted this to signify that she not only named Jas. as her successor, but that she also desired him to remain King of Scotland, and wear the united crowns of both countries.

Though Jas. *did* succeed, however, this dying designation of Eliz. gave him no title, since it was made without consent or ratification of Parliament.

The rightful heir at her death was *William Seymour*, grandson of Lady Catherine Grey, and nearest surviving in descent from the Suffolk family, in whom the succession was legally vested by Hy. VIII.

The main cause of the Queen's reluctance to name her heir is, doubtless, to be found in her declaration to the Council in 1566.

There is, however, further reason for her conduct *during the life of the Queen of Scots*, upon whom she must have settled the Crown, if she had diverted it from the Suffolk family, which she seems to have wished to do:—

1. Eliz. cherished a deadly animosity to Mary.
2. Mary was a Roman Catholic.
3. As long as Eliz. kept the succession doubtful, she maintained a powerful check over her dangerous rival.

The Monopoly Dispute, 1601.—*Monopolies* were patents granted by Elizabeth, to her favourites chiefly, for the exclusive right to sell various commodities,—the sub-

ordinate dealer having to purchase his goods of the monopolist alone, or to pay a premium to him for his consent to sell independently.

These grants commenced early in the reign.

Each fresh monopoly became, of course, a new tax, and gradually even many of the commonest necessities of life doubled in price.

Towards the end of the reign this abuse had become unbearable, and in

1601, the Commons made a motion complaining bitterly of the system of Monopolies.

The ministers declared that monopolies were a part of the Prerogative, and threatened the Royal displeasure, if the motion were persisted in.

The Commons, however, were firm ; and Elizabeth saw that she must yield.

Accordingly, she promised to revoke all these grants, which should not be acknowledged by the Courts to be legal.

The Commons not appearing satisfied with this somewhat vague promise, Cecil interpreted it to them as signifying that Elizabeth would entirely abolish them.

INVENTIONS, DISCOVERIES, AND IMPROVEMENTS.

Tobacco brought into England from Tobago, by Raleigh, or from Virginia, by the returned colonists.

Coaches and pocket-watches introduced.

Paper-mills built.

Manufacture of gunpowder and brass cannon established by Elizabeth.

Silk-weaving set up, at Spitalfields, by Huguenot refugees.

Woollen manufacture and dyeing greatly improved, and extended, by Protestant refugees from the Netherlands, who settled chiefly near Norwich, at *Worstead*, (whence 'worsted').

The Stocking-frame invented by Rev. Wm. Lee, of Nottingham. Not being encouraged in England, he carried the invention to France.

COMMERCE, COLONIZATION, AND NAVAL ENTERPRIZE.

From this reign dates the *commencement of England's maritime greatness.*

Elizabeth greatly encouraged naval adventures, and, fortunately, was seconded by a noble band of ocean heroes, who raised the flag of England to a proud supremacy,—prepared the way for that extensive colonization which has become one of the chief sources of England's greatness,—and opened up many new branches of foreign trade.

Commerce greatly increased during this reign, although it had to struggle against the adverse influence of the exclusive Trading Companies, and the monopolies, which stagnated that home industry upon which foreign trade depends.

1569, Eliz. obtained from the Czar an **exclusive patent** for the **Russian trade**, which grew rapidly, and a **Russian Company** was founded.

1577, Drake started from Plymouth, with four ships, and a pinnace, and 164 men,—doubled Cape Horn,—and attacked the Spanish settlements on the coast of South America. On his return, he endeavoured to reach home by the N. of California; but, finding no passage, sailed for the E. Indies, and reached England round the C. of Good Hope, **1580**, having **circumnavigated the globe**. He was the *first Englishman to accomplish this feat, and the first commander-in-chief*,—for Magellan, whose ship had accomplished the same task, died on the voyage.

On his return, he was knighted by Elizabeth, who banqueted on board his ship, at Deptford.

1581, trade was opened with the Ottoman Empire, and the **Turkey Co.** was founded. Up to this period, the Sultan had always regarded England as a petty dependency of France!

Sir Humphrey Gilbert, Raleigh's step-brother, was lost on his homeward voyage from an unsuccessful attempt to colonize N. America.

1584, Raleigh, having obtained a patent for the same purpose, sent out two vessels. They reached a district which Raleigh called **Virginia**, in honour of Eliz.

The next year, 100 emigrants settled in the country; but they were unsuccessful, and were, at their own request, carried home by Drake, on his touching there.

A second batch of emigrants were sent out, 1587: they died of famine, or were killed by the Indians, and no further efforts to colonize America were made in this reign.

1595, Raleigh sailed to Guiana, at his own cost, lured by the report of gold mines to be found there,—took St. Joseph, in Trinidad,—sailed up the Orinoco, but discovered no auriferous deposits.

1600, the E. Indian Co. was founded, and received a patent, giving it power to buy lands, and to appoint committees to manage its affairs. They commenced with a capital of £72,000, and, to begin their operations, fitted out four ships, which rewarded their enterprise by returning with rich freights.

Frobisher made two unsuccessful voyages to discover the N.W. passage,—but he added much to the popular knowledge of the Arctic regions, as did also **Sir John Davis**, who, sailing with the same purpose as Frobisher, discovered the Straits that bear his name.

Hawkins explored the Guinea Coast, and commenced the Slave-trade,—carrying negroes thence to Hispaniola, and exchanging them for sugar, ginger, and other produce.

At the beginning of the reign, the **Hanse towns**, which had formerly done the carrying trade between England and the Continent, complained to Elizabeth, that, during the two preceding reigns, the Merchant Adventurers had invaded their privileges.

The Queen replied that she would not interfere with the past; but promised to preserve intact their rights, as they now stood.

Annoyed at this treatment, they sulkily suspended their commerce for a time, and thus did themselves immense injury, and the English merchants great good, for the latter took the trade into their own hands.

SCOTCH AFFAIRS.

1559. Peace was concluded between England and Scotland, at the same time that the Treaty of Cateau-Cambresis was ratified,—Elizabeth promising, on her part, not to afford aid or asylum to Scotch rebels.

Soon, however, the Queen was led again to interfere by force in the affairs of the sister kingdom.

Mary, Queen of Scots, married the Dauphin Francis, and, residing in France, was next heir by descent to the Crown of England. Hy. II., influenced by the Guises, induced Francis and his young wife to assume the title and arms of King and Queen of England, an action tantamount to a denial of Elizabeth's, and an assertion of Mary's, present right to the Throne.

Elizabeth naturally regarded this assumption with feelings of jealousy and apprehension, and when, upon his succeeding his father, as Francis II., the Dauphin, with his wife, continued the offensive course, Elizabeth regarded him and Mary as deadly foes, bent on dethroning her.

The condition of affairs in Scotland, at this juncture, opened before her a way to revenge and defence.

Knox having returned from Geneva early in Elizabeth's reign, the energies of the Congregation were aroused to renewed effort by his fiery speeches, by means of which he also greatly changed popular opinion, turning it against France, and in favour of an English alliance.

The Reforming party, thus becoming more powerful than that of the Regent, determined on decided measures.

1559, at a Convention of Clergy, the Lords of Congregation reiterated the demands made by them in Mary's reign,—and demanded that bishops should not be elected without the consent of the gentry of the diocese, nor parish ministers without the suffrages of the parishioners.

The Queen flatly refused their demands, and issued a proclamation ordering all to resort daily to Mass, and to observe Confession,—declaring that no language but Latin must be employed in the services of the Church,—and summoning all clergymen who had violated these injunctions to repair to Stirling, and there answer for themselves. They assembled, headed by Knox, and surrounded by crowds of nobles and other supporters.

On reaching Perth, they determined to attempt mediation, and sent a gentleman named Erskine to the Regent, at Stirling. He told her they only wanted liberty for their preachers and themselves to worship according to their conscience.

The Regent promised that, if they would disperse, she

would withdraw the summonses,—allow the preachers to remain unmolested,—and redress all grievances.

Knox's party consented; but no sooner were they disbanded, than she renewed the citations, and, on the refusal of the ministers to appear, denounced them as rebels.

This treachery roused the Congregation to madness. After a burning sermon against idolatry, delivered by Knox in St. Andrew's Cathedral, the people, goaded to frenzy, rushed upon, and destroyed, the altars, shrines, relics, images, pictures, and all other monuments savouring of superstition. The monasteries of the city shared the same fate,—like scenes were enacted elsewhere,—and *the fate of the Romish Church in Scotland was decided.*

The two parties now took up arms,—but the Protestants, disliking the idea of civil war, made one more effort at conciliation, which being met with apparent cordiality, an Armistice was agreed upon, and the Protestant forces disbanded, after, however, renewing the Covenant with one another.

Again the Regent deceived them,—and, seizing Perth, turned out the Protestant magistrates, and garrisoned the place with Scotch troops in French pay.

Murray now deserted her, and the army of the Congregation reassembled at St. Andrews.

Seeing herself in a minority, she asked aid from France, and large reinforcements were sent her. Meanwhile, Knox travelled through the country, preaching a new Crusade against Popery, and everywhere the scenes of destruction at St. Andrews were repeated. The army of the Congregation re-took Perth, and destroyed the Abbey, and Palace, of Scone. An army under Murray and Argyle marched to Stirling, destroying there all the altars, &c., and, proceeding to Linlithgow, treated that town in like manner. The Regent retreated to Dundee, and the Protestant forces entered Edinburgh in triumph.

The Lords then appealed to Eliz. for her alliance; but she only encouraged them with her approval, and a promise of aid if they should be in extreme need of it.

Cecil, however, privately advised them to depose the Regent,—change the Government,—and plunder the Church.

This counsel was well received by them, but they determined to make the Regent one more offer, before proceeding to extremities.

They promised her that, if she would consent to the Reformation,—to the cleansing of the churches from monuments of superstition,—to the use of Ed. VI.'s Service Book,—and to the dismissal of the French troops, they would obey her, and annex to the Crown the Church lands that should be confiscated. She refused.

The Lords then passed an Act, on their own authority, depriving the Regent of her office, in the name of Mary, and ordering the French troops to quit the country.

They also assembled fresh troops to enforce their commands, but, finding themselves unequal in military skill to the French, were again compelled to beg Eliz.'s aid.

Though Knox and the Puritans were specially odious to the Queen, she was not prepared to see French influence and Romanism predominant in Scotland, and was, therefore, easily induced by Cecil to take part in the struggle.

1560, 8,000 English troops, under *Norfolk*, advanced to Berwick, where was signed, and ratified, between Eliz. and the Lords, the **Treaty of Berwick**, for mutual defence,—both parties pledging themselves to continue the struggle till Scotland should be clear of the French.

An English fleet of 13 ships now appeared in the Frith of Forth,—*Norfolk's* army crossed the border,—and the French shut themselves up in **Leith**, which, however, capitulated to a mixed English and Scotch force.

The deposed Regent dying, and the Congregation meeting with some reverses in the field, and dissensions amongst its leaders, both parties inclined to peace, and, by Eliz.'s mediation, Scotland, France, and England, (represented by Cecil and Dr. Wotton,) signed the **Treaty of Edinburgh**.

Terms:—1. The French to evacuate Scotland immediately.

2. Francis and Mary to abandon the English royal title and arms.

3. The Treaty of Berwick to remain in force.

The last article Cecil entrapped the envoys into, against their instructions.

The Scotch commissioners had wished to introduce some articles concerning religion; but Cecil, by Elizabeth's instructions, put a veto on their proposal.

A Parliament was now called, the Congregation being

in a majority. Its most important proceedings amounted to the *virtual destruction of the Romish Church in Scotland*:—

1. A Protestant '*Confession of Faith*,' drawn up by Knox and others, was unanimously agreed to.

2. As the natural result of 1, three Acts were passed—

(1.) Abolishing the Pope's jurisdiction.

(2.) Repealing all former statutes in favour of Roman Catholicism.

(3.) Forbidding, under severe penalties, hearing and saying Mass.

3. A '*Book of Discipline*,' settling the future government of the Church on Presbyterian principles, was agreed to, after severe opposition from those who had hoped to share in the Church lands: because it made provision out of the property for the support of the ministry.

Besides these measures relating to the Church, Parliament—

1. Appointed a Provisional Government.

2. Confirmed the Treaty of Berwick.

3. Proposed a marriage between Eliz. and the Earl of Arran.

Embassies were to be sent to announce these proceedings to Mary and the Queen of England,—that to the latter being of the higher rank and greater number, in order to intimate the greater respect they felt for Eliz. than for their own sovereign, who, as might have been expected, flatly refused to ratify the Treaty of Edinburgh, and the measures of Parliament.

1560, on the death of Francis, a Scotch Parliament met,—resolved to ask Mary to return,—and sent Murray to Paris to carry their invitation. On his way he called at the English Court, and concocted with Elizabeth and Cecil mutual plans for the future.

Elizabeth sent the Earl of Bedford to demand from Mary the ratification of the T. of Edinburgh,—the Scotch Queen again declined,—and Elizabeth, thereupon, refused to grant her a safe-conduct through England, necessitating her to determine on sailing direct from Dieppe to Leith.

Murray, who had, during his stay in Paris, completely ingratiated himself with Mary, and gained great influence over her, on his return paid another visit to Eliz., to concert a scheme for detaining the Scotch queen in France,

or seizing her on her way to her kingdom. However, she embarked safely, and, escaping in a fog the English cruisers which had been placed on the look-out for her, in

1561, landed at Leith, and was welcomed by the people's acclamations, caused partly by joy at having their sovereign amongst them again, and more by her beauty, grace, and intelligence.

Knox, and the Lords of the Congregation, however, regarded her with suspicious aversion, as being herself a Papist, and having refused to ratify the Treaty and the Acts of Parliament,—and before long their rancorous influence changed the popular sentiment concerning her.

Mary found herself in a most difficult position, and hesitated as to her policy. Her principles urged her to place herself in the hands of the Roman Catholic party; but they possessed no leaders of any talent,—the Protestants were in a strong majority,—and she desired to keep the peace with Elizabeth.

At length she decided on bestowing her confidence upon the Reformers, and chose, as her chief adviser, Murray.

Under his direction she issued a proclamation enjoining everyone to conformity with the Protestant faith and worship,—though, after great opposition, she was allowed to say Mass in her private chapel.

She failed, however, in conciliating the grim Knox and the clergy, who made her a butt for the coarsest insults, Knox preaching of, and at, her, with the bitterest personality, and bestowing upon her the epithet, '*Jezebel*.' Her French gaiety was magnified into immorality,—her very amusements were controlled by the stern Protestant leaders,—the light-hearted girl grew miserable and melancholy,—and, naturally, her mind was speedily filled with dislike and loathing for the party whom policy alone had led her to support.

Between herself and Elizabeth there seemed to exist a cordial friendship, a sisterly correspondence being kept up between them.

Being urged by her subjects to marry, she frankly consulted the English queen, whom she wished to please in the husband she might choose, since her great aim was to have herself proclaimed successor to the throne of England.

Elizabeth, actuated by jealousy, and that strange repug-

nance she showed to marriages generally, was displeased at the project, and determined to cross it, if possible. Accordingly, to several foreign matches successively presented, she objected, and, in every case submitted, gained her point. At length, seeing that Mary was determined on a husband, she proposed the Earl of Leicester. The match was beneath Mary, and not agreeable to Leicester, who had higher aims at home, and who attributed the suggestion to a scheme of his enemy, Cecil, to get rid of him.

Mary, however, though deeply insulted, expressed her willingness to accept him, as Eliz. held out the promise of settling the English crown upon their heirs.

It is doubtful whether Elizabeth ever intended her offer in good faith. It seems more probable that her only aim was to humiliate her rival, by making her accept at second-hand one of her own *beaux*.

Be this as it may, when the Scotch queen acquiesced, Elizabeth, after much delay and evasion, backed out of her offer.

Mary now determined to follow her own inclination, which soon led her to choose, as her husband, her cousin Lord Darnley, whom she met soon afterwards, and whose handsomeness and accomplished grace at once won her heart.

Darnley was next heir, by descent, to Mary, to the English throne. He had been born, and brought up, in England, where his father, the Earl of Lennox, had resided since his banishment from Scotland.

On acquainting Elizabeth with her choice, that lady became furious, and strongly endeavoured to mar the marriage. She ordered Darnley, as her subject, to return to England, and, on his refusal, imprisoned his mother and brother, and confiscated his father's estates.

In Scotland, too, there was opposition. Darnley and his father were suspected to be Romanists; Murray and his party, accordingly, saw in this step their downfall, and Knox and the Kirk, the restoration of Popery. But, though they used every effort to excite the nation to rebellion, they failed in their aim.

A convention of nobles was held at Stirling, and approved of the union, and in

1565, Mary espoused Darnley, who received the title of 'King Henry.'

Not long after, she incurred further odium from the Murray and the Protestant parties by admitting to her confidence the Earl of Bothwell, (James Hepburn), a man of ancient family and great power, and the Earls of Athol and Huntly,—all of Roman Catholic proclivities.

Murray, and other lords of his party, now took up arms to dethrone Mary, at the instigation of Elizabeth, who, however, prudently refused them material aid. Not being supported by the nation, they dispersed at the approach of the Queen and Darnley with an army,—crossed into England,—and claimed the protection of the English monarch. She, however, meanly disavowed all connection with them,—denounced them as traitors,—and compelled them to declare publicly that she had not been cognizant of their purpose. She then allowed them to retire to the N., and gave the Earl of Bedford secret instructions to supply their wants during their exile.

Mary's marriage was unhappy. She speedily discovered Darnley to be mean, weak, and vicious, and accordingly ceased to manifest those tokens of love and confidence with which she had at first loaded him.

This change in behaviour her husband attributed to a passion for *David Rizzio*. He was an Italian, son of a professor of music, and had been a singer in Mary's band. He had then, on account of his knowledge of French, been appointed Mary's correspondent in that tongue,—and, when Maitland of Lethington, the Queen's private secretary, fell into disgrace, he had been chosen to fill that post, and consequently enjoyed Mary's intimate confidence.

Rizzio, a zealous Romanist, hated Murray and his party, and used his influence with the Queen, who had already attainted them, to bring the exiled lords to justice.

Murray's friends in Scotland were, therefore, the Italian's bitterest foes, and, learning Darnley's jealous suspicions, fostered and inflamed them, with a view to the Secretary's ruin,—the Earl of Morton, the Chancellor, especially, suggesting to the King that the only way to recover his lost position was to murder Rizzio.

A conspiracy for this purpose was accordingly formed amongst the friends of Murray and Darnley, and many Protestant nobles who believed that Rizzio was in correspondence with Rome for the restoration of Popery in Scotland. The chief associates of Darnley in the plot were

Morton, Maitland, Ruthven, Lindsay, George Douglas, natural brother of the Countess Lennox, and Lennox himself,—while the exiled lords were informed of the scheme, and invited to return.

March, 1566, Rizzio was assassinated, as he sat at supper with Mary, in a private cabinet in Holyrood Palace,—the other parties present being the Countess of Argyle, the Captain of the Guard, the Comptroller of the Household, and two servants.

While Morton and a party of soldiers guarded the gates, Ruthven, Douglas, and other conspirators, led by Darnley up a secret stairway to the apartment, rushed in, and surprised the party. Mary demanded their errand,—they replied, the destruction of Rizzio. The wretched being took refuge behind the Queen; but Douglas, snatching Darnley's dagger, stabbed the Italian over Mary's shoulder. He was torn from her,—dragged into an antechamber, and mangled to death with fifty-six wounds.

When his end was announced to the Queen, she ceased to weep, and declared that, henceforth, she should think of revenge.

The day after, the exiled nobles returned,—and Mary was placed in confinement in the Palace, being allowed to see only Darnley and his party, who had resolved upon a change in the Government.

The King, of whom his supporters knew they would be able to make a mere tool, was to be, nominally, at the head of affairs,—the returned exiles were to be restored to their estates and places,—and Mary was to be kept a prisoner until she consented to these arrangements, and to the complete establishment of Protestantism.

The Queen, however, acting on policy, speedily regained her ascendancy over Darnley,—and drew from him all particulars of the conspirators' plans, and the names of those engaged in Rizzio's murder,—the mean coward declaring his entire innocence in the affair!

Mary then fled with her husband to Dunbar,—assembled 8,000 troops,—and advanced against the leagued nobles, who fled to Berwick, and begged Eliz.'s protection.

Morton now, in their justification, sent the Queen full evidence of Darnley's complicity in Rizzio's assassination, and the miserable King became, henceforth, an object of loathing and contempt to his wife, who, feeling that she

had no support, felt herself compelled to dissemble. She pardoned some of the conspirators,—restored Murray to much of his former power,—and even affected to believe and trust her husband, to whom, in the June after the murder, she bore a son, *James VI. of Scotland, and I. of England.*

At her recovery, she realized the necessity for some decided steps to save the kingdom from decay. Murray and Bothwell had long been at feud: she reconciled them, and entrusted to a Triumvirate, comprised of them and Argyle, the chief control of affairs,—Huntly being made Chancellor, and Maitland pardoned and restored to the Secretaryship. Bothwell, a thorough profligate, soon gained a complete ascendancy over Mary.

Her husband, seeing himself shut out of power, and treated with ignominy by the nobles, determined, and prepared, to quit Scotland for the Continent;—but Mary being seized with a fever, a hollow reconciliation between them took place.

Murray and Maitland now proposed a divorce. Mary cherished the idea at first, but finally abandoned it.

Bothwell, Maitland, Huntly, Argyle, and Sir Jas. Balfour, then conspired to murder Darnley, and a bond was subscribed by them and their associates in England, binding them to accomplish the deed. Murray did not sign; but there is no doubt he was privy to the plot.

Soon after the baptism of his infant son, at which he refused to be present, Darnley went to Glasgow, and there caught the small-pox. Mary's wifely tenderness appeared to be revived by his illness: she despatched her own physician to attend him,—went herself to see him,—and, when he became convalescent, took him back with her to Edinburgh, where she lodged him, not at Holyrood, but in a solitary house, called the '*Kirk of Field*,' and standing in the suburbs. Here, she alleged, he would find purer air, and more quiet, than he would in the Palace. She caused a bedchamber for herself to be fitted up under his room,—assiduously attended upon him,—and for several nights slept in the house.

Here the conspirators determined to carry out their design, and, the details being settled between Bothwell, (who undertook the chief share in the work), Maitland, and Morton, (who had been recently pardoned, and allowed

to return), gunpowder was stored, either under the foundation, or in Mary's room.

Feby. 9, 1567, the Queen, on the plea of having promised to be present at the Palace at the marriage of one of her servants, slept at Holyrood, having taken a peculiarly tender farewell of her husband, and transferred a ring from her hand to his.

At two o'clock the next morning, a loud explosion roused the city, and it was found that the *Kirk* had been blown up, Darnley's corpse, and that of his page, being found at some distance, in a field, without a token of fire or mutilation upon them,—leaving it to be obviously inferred that the bodies had not been hurled thither by the powder, but that they had been previously murdered, and removed to the spot where they were discovered, the explosion being a mere feint to account for their death.

Public opinion pointed out Bothwell as the murderer, and Mary as an accomplice.

Lennox openly accused the Earl of the crime, and clamoured for justice. Bothwell declared his innocence, and demanded a trial, which Mary granted, ordering both to appear before her on a certain day. At the appointed time, Bothwell presented himself with 5,000 friends and attendants: Lennox, not daring to attend, sent a request for an adjournment, but was refused; and the accused was acquitted.

In a Parliament held two days afterwards, the verdict was ratified.

Upon the dissolution of Parliament, 24 of the chief nobility signed a document declaring that Bothwell was innocent,—recommending him as a suitable husband for Mary,—and promising to defend him from all danger, and to further the advised union. This proceeding was, in reality, *a deep plot for the Queen's ruin.*

Soon afterwards, Mary went to Stirling to see her son. On her return, Bothwell, at the head of 1,000 men, whom he had assembled on pretence of chastizing some border robbers, seized her, unresisting, near Edinburgh, and conveyed her to Dunbar,—the capture being, doubtless, pre-arranged with her.

Having thus got her in his power, the Earl urged his suit, and was accepted. The pair returned, in a few days, to the capital, when Mary announced her determination,

and created her lover Duke of Orkney. A divorce from his wife, a sister of Huntly, was hastily procured by Bothwell, and he espoused Mary three months after Darnley's death.

The nobles who had, to serve their own ends, acquitted Bothwell, and advised his marriage, now threw off the mask. They met at Stirling, and formed an association to protect Jas.,—to punish Darnley's murderers, amongst whom they included Murray, (who fled to France,) and Bothwell,—and to separate Mary and her husband.

To accomplish their purposes, they assembled an army. Mary and Bothwell also collected forces, and the hostile ranks met at

Carberry Hill, (nr. Musselburgh), 1567.—Mary, finding her troops not to be depended upon, and seeing the leaders of the opposing force apparently disinclined for battle, proposed a parley, which ended in an agreement that

1. Bothwell might leave the field unmolested.
2. Mary should surrender herself to the confederate nobles.

Bothwell fled to the Orkneys, and thence sailed to Denmark; but was seized on his voyage thither by the Danes, and, accused of being a pirate, was thrown into prison, where he died, mad, ten years after.

The Queen was conducted to Edinburgh, amidst the grossest insults, and, the next day, was transferred, in custody, to Lechleven Castle.

Elizabeth, on hearing of her imprisonment, sent Sir Nicholas Throgmorton to assure Mary of her sympathy, and to promise her protection against her rebellious subjects, on condition that the Scotch queen should delegate to her the punishment of Darnley's murderers,—and should send Prince James to England to be educated. Sir Nicholas was, however, refused admission to the Queen.

The Lords were divided in their counsels concerning Mary's treatment. Some desired her execution, and others her life-imprisonment; but the majority were in favour of milder measures, which were, accordingly, determined upon. They drew up, and submitted to her, for signature,

An Instrument, providing that

1. Mary should abdicate in favour of her son.
2. Murray, (assisted by a Council), should be Regent during James's minority.

3. Till Murray's arrival, a Council should carry on the Government.

Lindsay, the bearer of the document, threatening the Queen with death as an accomplice in Darnley's murder, should she refuse to subscribe, Mary reluctantly signed the deed.

James was proclaimed and crowned, 1567,—Morton, in the name of the young King, taking the Coronation Oath, in which was included a pledge to root out heresy.

On Murray's arrival a Parliament was assembled, which ratified the Instrument,—declared Mary accessory to Darnley's murder,—and sentenced her to imprisonment for life.

She had, however, many friends left, who proceeded to plan a rising. The Queen, informed of their designs, successfully employed her fascinations in inducing the son of Lochleven's "laird," a youth of sixteen, to aid her escape, which she accomplished, after ten months' confinement.

She reached Hamilton, the appointed rendezvous, and was joined there, in a few days, by 6,000 men.

She now issued a Proclamation retracting the Instrument,—and attempted to conciliate Murray, by a promise to call a free Parliament, and to give up Darnley's murderers, on condition that those whom she accused of Rizzio's assassination should be placed in *her* hands. The Regent refused, and, assembling an army, intercepted her between Hamilton and Dumbarton, at

Langside, (nr. Glasgow), 1568.—Regent vic.,—Queen's forces dispersed.

Mary fled South, and, trusting to Elizabeth's late friendly expressions, determined to refuge in England.

Sailing, in a fishing-smack, from Galloway, she landed at Whitehaven, and thence proceeded to Carlisle. From this place she sent a message to the Queen of England, in London, asking her protection, and permission to come to her.

Elizabeth found herself in a strait. To receive Mary at Court would be a virtual declaration of belief in her innocence, and a real espousing of her cause against the Protestant party in Scotland; while to refuse to see her, but still to allow her to remain at liberty in England, would be to leave her rival free to plot against her.

Accordingly, guided by Cecil, she adopted the only other

course open to her, determining to keep Mary in custody, until she should clear herself of Darnley's murder, (which Elizabeth and her wily advisers doubtless foresaw would never be accomplished).

A message, conveying this decision, was sent to Mary. She, making "a virtue of necessity," declared herself willing to place her cause in Elizabeth's hands, and proposed that her accusers and herself should appear before the English Queen, as judge. Eliz. refused, and suggested a public trial, which, of course, Mary rejected. It was finally agreed that the case should be submitted to a Commission of Scotchmen and Englishmen, representing the respective interests of Elizabeth, Mary, and the Scotch Parliament.

Murray, though indignantly opposed to Eliz.'s interference, and assumption of authority over Scotland, could not afford to quarrel with her, since he was surrounded by jealous enemies. Consequently, he agreed to the arrangement between her and Mary.

Mary was now removed from Carlisle to Bolton, Yorks.

The Commission met at York.—England being represented by the Duke of Norfolk, the Earl of Sussex, and Sir Ralph Sadler.

In consequence of Norfolk's appearing to show partiality towards Mary, the conference was, after several sittings, transferred to Hampton Court, and Burleigh, Nicholas Bacon, Arundel, Leicester, and Admiral Lord Clinton were added to the English Commissioners.

Murray did not at first unfold the darkest charges against Mary, because he was uncertain whether her condemnation were desired by Elizabeth. She, however, urged him, at a private interview, to do his worst, and, accordingly, he openly accused the Scotch Queen, before the Commission, of complicity in Darnley's murder. Lennox also appeared before them, and supported the charge.

Being asked for proofs, the Regent produced alleged copies of letters and poems written by Bothwell to Mary, and said to have been intercepted by the confederate nobles. These contained ample proof of her criminal connection with Bothwell,—of her acquiescence in her seizure by him,—and of her privity to Darnley's murder.

Mary now demanded to be heard, personally, by Elizabeth in her defence, and to be allowed to compare the

copies of the papers produced by Murray with the originals, which she declared were falsely transcribed.

Both requests being refused, Mary, through her Commissioners, announced that, as far as *she* was concerned, the conference was at an end.

Cecil, however, continued the proceedings, and, (when he had collected all available evidence), taking her guilt as proved, urged Mary to avoid the exposure of her crime by voluntarily resigning the Crown.

She indignantly refused, and declared that, if she might have copies of the letters, and access to the originals, she would shew, in Elizabeth's presence, that her accusers were really Darnley's murderers.

Elizabeth rejected her proposal for an interview, and her demand about the papers, and reiterated Cecil's advice as to abdicating the throne.

The Scotch Queen, as before, decidedly negatived the proposal. The *Conference thereupon broke up, without any definite result.*

The commissioners hostile to Mary professed that her refusal to answer before *them* the charges made against her was equivalent to a confession of guilt. But, virtually, the victory rested with Mary, for the refusal of her challenge was a confession of weakness on the other side.

Murray carried back the original papers to Scotland. It is their copies only that are available for historians, and upon the genuineness of these depends the guilt or innocence of Mary.

The advocates on both sides are numerous; but the balance of opinion is against her, and, therefore, in favour of the correctness of the copies.

Though the trial had not ended in her condemnation, she was not released,—the Council, acting on Eliz.'s wishes, declaring that Mary could not be set free till her innocence should be better established.

She was accordingly removed from Bolton, where she had been surrounded by Romanists, to Tutbury, Staffordshire, and there placed in the custody of the Earl of Shrewsbury. Afterwards she was incarcerated in Sheffield Castle.

Elizabeth now offered to set her rival free if she would resign in favour of James, or share the Crown with him,—Murray being Regent during the young King's minority.

Mary indignantly refused,—declaring that her last words should be those of a Queen of Scotland.

When Norfolk's design to marry her was discovered, Mary was sent to Coventry,—all access to her was forbidden,—and Viscount Hereford and the Earl of Huntingdon were added to Shrewsbury, as keepers.

Murray now found himself involved in a struggle with Maitland, and others, whom, though they had aided him in attaining his high position, he treated with haughty severity. In the midst of these contests, he was shot in a Linlithgow street, by Hamilton, of Bothwellhaugh, in revenge for a private wrong, with which the Regent was only remotely connected,—1570.

Scotland was now divided between two factions. The Queen's party, headed by Argyle, Athole, Huntly, Crawford, Maitland, Kirkaldy of Grange, an accomplished soldier, and others, assembled a Parliament at Edinburgh,—denounced their enemies as traitors,—and took up arms. The Protestant party, adhering to James, and looking upon Elizabeth as their protector, were headed by Lennox, Morton, Mar, Lindsay, Methuen, Ruthven, and others. They chose Lennox, Regent,—called a Parliament at Stirling,—and took Dumbarton, where Hamilton, Archbp. of St. Andrew's, fell into their hands, and was executed for his share in Darnley's and Murray's deaths.

Lennox being slain in a skirmish, Mar succeeded him as Regent. He bent his efforts to reconciling the two factions; but was crossed by the ambition of Morton and others, and died worn out with trouble. During his regency, the English ambassador had opened negotiations with him and Morton for delivering Mary up to the Scotch to be put to death, and only his death frustrated the design.

Morton now became Regent. He was cruel, corrupt, selfish, and hypocritical, but brave, firm, and of piercing intellect. He was devoted to Elizabeth, who sent troops to his aid, and re-opened negotiations for Mary's betrayal. The Regent, however, demanding money in advance for himself, and pensions for his friends, the scheme fell through.

After Norfolk's death, the Commons petitioned Elizabeth for Mary's execution; but she sent them orders not at present to deal any further in the affair.

Norfolk's execution dispirited Mary's party, and Morton, strengthened by English troops, pursued the campaign with vigour.

Edinburgh Castle was invested, 1573, by a mixed force, under *Sir Wm. Drury*, and defended by *Grange*, with desperate valour, until the walls crumbled to pieces, and provisions were exhausted. He then surrendered, on Drury's promise of protection to the prisoners. The English commander, however, treacherously handed them over to Morton, who executed Grange, and threw Maitland, who was amongst the captives, into prison, where he died.

Morton's oppression of the Church, and haughty treatment of James and the nobles, made him generally hated. A faction of the lords persuaded the young King to assert himself, and he accordingly summoned a Parliament for that purpose. The long-headed Regent professed to readily acquiesce in the King's intention, and resigned his office. He was rewarded by an Act approving all the acts of his regency,—this being the one object that had induced his submission. This being obtained, by the support of the *Mars*, he again took possession of James, and recovered his former ascendancy.

Argyle, Athole, and others, however, determined to free the King from bondage, and assembled forces; but a compromise was entered into by which Morton gave up, and James obtained a portion of authority.

James now chose, as favourites, the Duke of Lennox, and Captain Stewart, whom he made Earl of Arran, and who, —ambitious, daring, and unprincipled,—soon gained entire ascendancy over the King. These two favourites organized a powerful opposition to Morton. Eliz. interposed in his behalf, and threatened invasion; but, a large Scotch army speedily assembling, she withdrew her interference.

Morton was arraigned as an accomplice in Darnley's murder,—tried in a manner that violated all legal forms,—condemned,—and executed, 1581. He acknowledged himself privy to Darnley's assassination; but denied complicity in it, and died bravely.

James now succeeded *nominally* to supreme power; which was, however, *really* exercised by Lennox and Arran, the latter soon ruling everything, and causing general disgust by his shameless deeds. A plot, headed by the Earl of Gowrie, was formed against him. The conspirators seized

James at Ruthven Castle,—removed from power Lennox and Arran, the former escaping to France, the latter being imprisoned,—and ordered the Government in their own interest.

The King, though deeply chagrined, professed perfect contentment with the state of affairs; but privately gathered a party of supporters, amongst whom were Argyle and Montrose, round himself, and escaped from the control of his captors. Just at this moment, however, Arran regained his freedom,—returned to Court,—and reestablished his ascendancy over James. By his advice Gowrie was executed, some of the confederate nobles submitted, and were pardoned, and the others fled to England, where they received Elizabeth's protection.

Popular feeling was soon again excited against Arran, who endeavoured in vain, by Elizabeth's influence, to regain his position. He was driven from Court by the nobles, who then made themselves masters of James's person, and established a Government, giving to the nobility a share in the direction of State affairs.

In consequence of various intrigues against her, by the Roman Catholics, Elizabeth now placed Mary in closer custody, (removing her from Shrewsbury's care to that of Sir Amias Paulet and Sir Drue Drury), and made a league with James for their mutual defence against the Roman Catholic Continental powers.

In 1586, in consequence of Mary's alleged complicity in Babington's Conspiracy, Elizabeth determined to bring her to trial.

She was removed to Fotheringay Castle, Northamptonshire,—her secretaries Nan and Curle were arrested,—and all her MS. papers and letters were taken possession of.

Under the Act of 1584 "for the security of the Queen's person," &c., Eliz. appointed 47 Councillors and nobles, to try Mary, "the late Queen of Scots, and heir to James V. of Scotland."

Of these 36 attended, Oct. 12th, and Mary was arraigned before them on the

Charge—That she had compassed the dethronement, (by home-rebellion and of foreign troops), and assassination of Elizabeth.

At first she refused to plead, declaring that the court had no jurisdiction over her, an independent sovereign.

At length, however, Sir Christopher Hatton induced her to answer, by representing to her that silence would be construed into a confession of guilt.

She then spoke to the charge,—acknowledging, and defending, her design to escape, but denying any intention to dethrone or murder Eliz.

The evidence against her consisted of copies of letters that had passed between her and Babington, which had been obtained by Walsingham's cunning, (as narrated under '*Norfolk's Rebellion*').

One of the young man's epistles fully developed the conspirators' plans for her release, and Elizabeth's assassination, and Mary's answer accepted the offer of deliverance, but advised him not to attempt anything until sure of support at home, and aid from Spain.

These letters Mary declared to be forgeries, but their genuineness and authenticity were proved by—

1. The evidence of her secretaries.
2. Babington's confession.
3. The declaration of Ballard and Savage that Babington had shown them such letters.

She then withdrew the accusation of forgery, but still denied all complicity in Elizabeth's projected murder, and demanded to be confronted with the witnesses, or heard in open Parliament.

The trial concluded, Oct. 15th,—the Commission adjourning to Westminster till Oct. 25th.

On that day they met in the Star Chamber,—and declared that—

1. "The Babington Conspiracy was with the privy of Mary, pretending title to the crown of England."

2. She had "compassed and imagined within this realm divers matters tending to the hurt, death, and destruction of Our Sovereign Lady the Queen," and pronounced sentence of death.

The question of Mary's guilt depends entirely upon whether originals of the copies of the letters produced on the trial really existed.

We are constrained to believe that those copies were genuine, for—

1. The evidence of the conspirators was unanimous on the point.
2. Walsingham, though profoundly crafty, was a man

of too lofty a character and Christian principles to have stooped to forgery.

This being so, *Mary's guilt extended to—*

1. Privity to the plan for raising home-riots, landing foreign forces, and dethroning and assassinating Elizabeth.

2. Consent to use of rebellion and foreign arms, to secure her liberation.

Some doubt may exist as to whether she could be condemned on 1, but 2 *constituted her guilty of high treason!*

For plotting to escape alone, she was blameless,—nay, even praiseworthy.

Elizabeth, aware of the odium she would incur by the step, and the danger from Mary's partisans, and foreign powers, to which it would expose her, hesitated to ratify the sentence, notwithstanding her ministers' entreaties, declaring that concern for the country's safety alone prevented her freely pardoning Mary's offences against her. But it is pretty certain that, in the meantime, Elizabeth endeavoured to induce Paulet to secretly despatch the Scotch Queen.

To give greater show to her apparent reluctance, Elizabeth now summoned Parliament, and laid the matter of the trial before them. As she had expected, both Houses ratified the sentence, and demanded its execution. The Queen begged them to consider if there were no other way to secure the peace of the country. After deliberation, they declared that there was no other course possible.

Thereupon Elizabeth published the sentence by proclamation. Mary heard the news calmly, and, being told that the Protestants desired her execution to confirm their religion, declared that she died a martyr to her faith. She wrote a touching farewell to Eliz., thanking God for releasing her from her sad pilgrimage,—asking to be executed publicly, and to be buried in France, by her mother's side,—and asking certain favours for her attendants.

James, as soon as he heard of his mother's condemnation, sent Sir Wm. Keith to London, with a letter of stern denunciation.

The Master of Gray and Sir Robt. Melvil were soon after despatched to add their remonstrances to Keith's. Their intervention availed not,—and it is even reported that Gray, seduced by Mary's foes, privately advised Elizabeth to carry out the sentence, and promised to smooth matters with James.

The King of France, also, in vain interceded for the doomed Queen.

At length Elizabeth, considering that she had exhibited reluctance sufficient to blind the world, determined on taking the final step. To afford a proximate pretext for carrying out the sentence, rumours of foreign invasions and home-plots, in favour of Mary, were circulated. Elizabeth sat solitary, pretending much terror, and uttering disjointed ejaculations of distress and alarm.

Finally, as if overcome by her assumed agitation, she instructed Secretary Davison to privately make out the death-warrant. The next day she countermanded the order, and professed great surprise and anger when he informed her that it had passed the Great Seal. Urged by the Council, who promised to bear all responsibility, the Secretary despatched the document to Earls Shrewsbury and Kent, and others, with orders to see it carried out.

Shrewsbury and Kent started at once for Fotheringay, —informed Mary of their errand,—and bade her prepare for death on the morning succeeding their arrival.

The Queen received the news with astonishment, saying that she did not think her sister of England would have proceeded so far as to put her to death, seeing that she was not an English subject; but added smilingly that she hailed death as the end of all her woes. She then supped early, that she might have plenty of time to settle her affairs, and prepare for her end, meanwhile cheerfully comforting her sorrowing attendants.

Next morning, **Feby. 8, 1587**, she arrayed herself in a splendid silk and velvet robe, and, entering the room where the scaffold had been raised, bade 'Farewell' to her old and faithful servant, Sir Andrew Melvil. With the greatest unconcern she heard the warrant read over. A priest had been denied her, and the Dean of Peterborough stepped forward and commenced exhorting her to die in the true faith. She replied that she was a decided Romanist, and that she intended to lay down her life for her religion,—notwithstanding which he persisted to the last in his importunities.

She then, by the aid of her women and the executioner, unrobed, jocularly remarking that she was not used to undress before so large a company, or to be attended by such a valet.

Upon her sobbing servants she enjoined silence by laying her finger on her lips,—gave them her blessing,—and begged for their petitions.

One of her maids having bandaged her eyes with a handkerchief, the Queen laid her head on the block, and the executioner effected his office in two strokes.

The Dean, holding aloft her head,—the face still convulsed with the death-throes,—exclaimed, "So perish all Queen Elizabeth's enemies!" Kent only responded, "Amen!"

She perished in the 45th year of her age, and the 19th of her captivity. Her body was interred at Peterborough, and was removed thence to Westminster, by James I.

Elizabeth's conduct in keeping Mary a prisoner was utterly unjustifiable: not so was her execution of Mary, if, as we believe, she was guilty of conspiring against Elizabeth,—for as merely a titular queen, Mary was amenable to English jurisdiction, even though retained in the country by force.

Elizabeth doubtless considered the execution necessary for her own safety, and for extinguishing, as it did, the hopes of the Romanists in England; but she might have attained her object by settling the succession on James, and would have been then able to allow Mary to leave the kingdom. But, unfortunately, the English Queen was determined not to name her heir, and, moreover, there is little doubt that her early jealousy and hatred of Mary stood effectually in the way of any display of mercy towards her.

Character.—Beautiful, and elegant,—brilliant in conversation, learned, and accomplished, (beguiling her solitude by writing verses).

Vain, gay, and frivolous naturally, she was rendered more so by her French education, which unfortunately tainted her morals, and accustomed her to those habits of gallantry to which she yielded herself on her return to Scotland.

Her misrule, and many of her sad errors, are greatly excusable, when it is remembered that she found herself, on her advent to Scotland, in a chaos of faction that had broken even her father's heart, and that would have taxed even a Cromwell to subdue and compose.

Claim to the English Crown she had none, *during* Elizabeth's reign, for Parliament had, under Hy. VIII.,

settled the throne upon Elizabeth, after Mary. Nor was she heir-presumptive, for Hy., having had the power granted him, by Parliament, of ordering the succession, had bequeathed the crown, in case of his children dying without issue, to the Suffolk family,—thus expressly passing over the Scotch branch, whence Mary sprang.

When Elizabeth learned that her rival was dead, she assumed the greatest rage and surprise,—went into deep mourning,—wept ceaselessly,—secluded herself with her women, and refused to see her Councillors, declaring that they had offended beyond forgiveness in executing her dear sister and relative, in opposition to her patent determination.

To appease James, she penned him an apologetic letter,—sent Davison to prison, and ordered him to be tried by the Star Chamber for disloyalty. He was sentenced to imprisonment during the Queen's pleasure, and to pay a fine of £10,000, which was exacted to his total ruin, though he was, after a long time, released from confinement.

James refused to see Eliz.'s envoy,—withdrew his ambassador from England,—and threatened war, which Parliament entreated him to undertake.

But Walsingham's wise advice, his desire to succeed Eliz., and a reluctance to offend the Protestants of England and Scotland, by placing himself at the head of the Romanist party, led him to overcome his resentment, and to enter into amicable relations with the Queen of England.

She continued, however, to interfere in Scotch affairs, and, amongst other things, endeavoured to thwart James's marriage with Anne of Denmark. During the latter part of her reign, the politic Sir Robert Cecil carried on, unknown to the Queen, a correspondence with James, having for its end the peaceable accession of that Prince, on the death of Elizabeth.

IRISH AFFAIRS.

Ireland continued to be a scene of rebellion and warfare during the greater part of the reign, owing chiefly to the severe measures taken to establish Protestantism,—Popery was prohibited,—the Acts of Supremacy and Uniformity were passed,—and all were commanded, under heavy penalties, to attend Church.

The priests, consequently, urged the people to revolt, and France and Spain fomented their discontent.

Desmond's Rebellion.—The Earl of Desmond, being at war with the Earl of Ormond, a favourite kinsman of Elizabeth's, concerning disputed land-boundaries, went to England to lay his cause before the Queen. He was, on his arrival, thrown into the Tower, and kept there for several years. On his return he continued the war, which now assumed the character of a rebellion.

1599, Philip sent him some troops. He was, however, defeated, and, fleeing to the woods, was killed. He was attainted, and his lands were given to Englishmen,—Spenser and Raleigh receiving grants.

The Spaniards laid down their arms, and were all shot, while Lord Grey, the Viceroy, hanged 1500 Irish.

A terrible famine followed, and Munster was almost depopulated. The vacant lands were divided into 40 lordships, and let out to Englishmen at small rents.

The new proprietors were mostly non-resident,—their agents maltreated the Irish,—and the hostility aroused by religious changes was thus deepened.

Shan O'Niel's Rebellion.—The great O'Niel, created Earl of Tyrone by Henry VIII., left two sons, by different wives, the elder of whom, Matthew, upon whom Henry had bestowed the title of "Lord Duncannon," succeeded to his father's title and estates.

Shan O'Niel, the younger brother, denied Matthew's legitimacy, and, consequently, his right of succession.

The two went to war,—Shan murdered Matthew,—and the latter's two sons fled to England.

Shan now became head of his *sept*, assumed the state of the old Ulster Kings, and openly defied the Viceroy.

Summoned to Dublin to answer for his proceedings, he returned a polite refusal; but invited the Lord-Lieutenant to pay *him* a visit in his castle. His wish was gratified. The Viceroy was well treated, and advised Shan to go to London, and lay his claims before Elizabeth. He did so,—entered the metropolis in wild pomp,—captivated the Queen's romantic fancy,—was confirmed in his father's estates and title,—and returned, after taking the oath of allegiance.

On reaching home, however, he resumed his former attitude.

It being reported that O'Donnel was about to join him, Sir John Perrot, the Governor, (a wise ruler, who restored Dublin University, and proposed the improvement of the island by making roads and bridges), obtained possession of O'Donnel's son by stratagem. The young man, however, escaped,—married Shan's daughter,—and joined his side.

Together, these two waged a destructive war on the Scoto-Irish nobles of Ulster.

Shan was, at last, defeated at *Derry*, and made peace with the Ulster nobles. He then went amongst them to endeavour to gain them over as allies against the English, but was stabbed by some of them at a banquet, 1567.

Tyrone's Rebellion, 1598-1602.—At Shan's death, Eliz. bestowed the title of "Earl of Tyrone" on Hugh, one of Shan's exiled nephews, and gave him, also, part of his uncle's estates. Hugh remained loyal for many years, but, having succoured some wrecked Armada men, his cousin, son of Shan, accused him to Eliz. as in traitorous correspondence with Spain. The Queen believing the report, Hugh's temper was roused. He murdered his cousin, and entered into a conspiracy with O'Donnel and other Ulster chiefs, to destroy Protestantism,—clear Ulster of sheriffs and garrisons,—and, in every way possible, resist the English government.

Philip's aid was asked and promised,—the Pope's blessing pronounced on the enterprise,—and Hugh appeared in open revolt, 1598.

Sir John Norris, the Viceroy, in vain opposed him, and died worn out with anxiety and chagrin.

He was succeeded by *Sir Hy. Bagnal*,—who made an attempt to relieve

Blackwater, 1598.—Tyrone vic.

1,500 English, including Bagnal, were killed.

This victory raised Tyrone's reputation, and his followers' spirits, and supplied them with military stores.

Tyrone now sent agents to rouse Munster to rebellion. He succeeded, and a terrible scene of destruction followed. Castles, farms, and churches were burned,—the English settlers' goods and cattle were stolen,—and themselves were either slaughtered, or were driven out, naked, to the woods and hills.

Ireland was on the point of being lost to England, and the Council determined on sending over a powerful force

to quell the rebellion. Of this expedition, Essex coaxed Elizabeth to make him commander, with the title of Lord-Lieutenant.

1599, he landed at Dublin, with 18,000 men.

Instead of marching direct upon Tyrone, in Ulster, he was induced by the Council at Dublin to first undertake to clear Munster. In this enterprise he lost the greater part of his force by famine, fatigue, and sickness.

Meanwhile, Tyrone was prospering in Ulster, and saw before him the prospect of restoring the ancient monarchy, and becoming King of Ireland.

On returning from Munster, Essex spent two months in Dublin. Then, by peremptory orders from Eliz., he set forth against the rebel. When, however, he approached him, he found himself too weak to hazard a battle, and, accordingly, proposed a conference with a view to peace, to which Tyrone agreed.

As the result, an Armistice for six weeks was concluded, and terms of peace were canvassed which, to say the least, do not indicate much *patriotism* on the part of Essex.

Eliz., though terribly enraged at this failure of the most extensive and costly expedition in her reign, bade Essex remain in Ireland. He, however, anxious to exculpate himself, disobeyed her, and hurried home.

Lord Mountjoy succeeded him, and, by vigorous measures, speedily crushed the Rebellion.

He gave no quarter, and, by burning the crops and agricultural implements of the Irish, brought upon them the same kind of distress that the English settlers had suffered. The common people hid themselves, and many chieftains fled to Spain.

In 1601, a large Spanish force landed, in aid of Tyrone, at Kinsale. *Mountjoy* shut them up there, and O'Niel, marching to their relief, having been defeated, the *Spaniards capitulated, 1602.*

In the same year Tyrone went to Dublin, and, with a request for pardon, made an absolute surrender of himself and his possessions to *Mountjoy.*

Elizabeth, however, died soon after his surrender, without having decided anything with regard to Tyrone. He and O'Donnel, knowing they need expect no clemency from James, fled to Italy, and their estates were, as they had foreseen, confiscated.

O'Niel spent the rest of his life at Rome, pensioned by the Pope.

Ireland, at the end of Eliz.'s reign, was in a lamentable condition. Everywhere food had risen 800 per cent. in price, and in many places meat and bread were not procurable.

The land was wretchedly unproductive, and the condition of the farmers pitiable in the extreme. The tenure of land was so uncertain, that the owners let it from year to year only. The tenants felt, consequently, no interest in improvements, so that they cultivated only just sufficient land to support themselves, and lodged in wretched cabins.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS.

Scotland.	France.	Germany.	Spain.
MARY.	HENRY II.	FERDINAND I.	PHILIP II.
JAMES VI.	FRANCIS II.	MAXIMILIAN II.	PHILIP III.
	CHARLES IX.	RUDOLPH II.	
	HENRY III.		
	HENRY IV.		
Popes.			
PAUL IV.		URBAN VII.	
PIUS IV.		GREGORY XIV.	
PIUS V.		INNOCENT IX.	
GREGORY XIII.		CLEMENT VIII.	
SIXTUS V.			

REMARKS ON THE GOVERNMENT OF THE TUDORS.

At the accession of Hy. VII. the following *checks upon the Royal authority* existed :—

1. No new tax could be levied, or law made, without the consent of Parliament.
2. No one could be imprisoned without a warrant, or denied a speedy trial.
3. Cases, criminal and civil (as far as these rested on facts), must be tried in open court,—in the county where

the offence was alleged to have been committed,—and by a jury, from whose decision there was no appeal.

4. Officers of the Crown violating anyone's rights might be sued, even if acting by his sovereign's orders.

In spite of all this, however, the Tudors were more arbitrary than either their predecessors or successors,—because—

1. They were able and determined.

2. The nation cherished an “exaggerated idea” of the “personal importance” of the sovereign,—in consequence of their having carried on the Wars of the Roses simply for the choice of one.

3. There was no body in the State in a position to oppose the monarch.

The peers had been reduced in number and power by the Wars of the Roses and the decay of feudalism. They were still further weakened by Hy. VII.'s numerous attainders, and by the conduct of Hy. VIII. By the suppression of monasteries he disqualified the mitred abbots from sitting in the House, and kept the remainder of the Peers in subjection, by severe examples of executions, and by gifts of Church property.

The Commons had not yet risen into sufficient importance to offer successful resistance to the sovereign. The Tudors, too, were in the habit of influencing elections, and creating rotten-boroughs, so that they could generally depend upon a subservient Parliament. Moreover, the debates were scarcely heard of out-of-doors, so that there was, as yet, no public opinion to support the proceedings of the House.

Hy. VII., owing to his economy, was able almost to dispense with Parliaments,—holding only seven in all : thus the Houses had little opportunity to declare their wishes, even had they dared to do so.

Hy. VIII.'s Parliaments were most obsequious, except on one or two occasions, when they were angered at *Wolsey's* arrogant interference.

Under Ed. VI. the Commons showed a growing independence : yet they allowed illegal proclamations.

Mary found her assemblies often refractory,—because many of her propositions were hurtful to the honour and welfare of the country, and there was a strong Protestant party that opposed her measures in favour of Popery. In their matters they were docile,—allowing her to place a

duty on foreign cloth, without their consent, and to issue unlawful proclamations.

Elizabeth, being economical, assembled only thirteen Parliaments; yet she found it hard to govern the Commons, for their power and determination were rising. In spite of her prescribing upon what subjects they should debate, and imprisoning members for free speech, they upheld their privileges, and increased in boldness as her reign advanced,—protesting against abuses (such as that of the High Commission Court),—urging upon the Queen the settlement of the succession,—and, finally, adopting such a determined attitude upon the Monopoly question, as compelled her to give way.

Elizabeth freely used her prerogative of refusing assent to Statutes,—48 that had passed both Houses being rejected by her.

The Revenue of the Tudor Sovereigns was derived from—

1. Tonnage and poundage (granted for life).
2. Parliamentary votes.
3. Some feudal rights,—*e.g.* Escheat and Purveyance.
4. The sale of Pardons and Bishopricks.
5. Forced Loans and Benevolences.

Hy. VII. levied two benevolences; but had to go to Parliament to procure a Statute for the first.

Hy. VIII. twice attempted to raise a Benevolence. The first he was compelled to abandon, owing to symptoms of revolt; for the second he was obliged to obtain an Act.

He availed himself eagerly of forced loans, *which were forgiven him by Parliament.*

Elizabeth exacted loans twice, at least; *but repaid them.*

Her average income was equal to £500,000 of our money.

The Administration of Justice was generally pure, save in State trials. In these cases, the accused were allowed no advocates, and were browbeaten alike by the prosecuting counsel and the judges.

The jury were packed, and, if they dared to acquit, were liable to severe punishment: *e.g.* in Mary's reign, Sir Nicholas Throgmorton was accused of complicity in Wyatt's rebellion. The jury, finding him 'Not guilty,' were imprisoned; four were released on confessing themselves to have been in the wrong; the rest were heavily fined by the Star Chamber.

Thos. Cromwell introduced the practice of attainting, by Act of Parliament, without trial, and was one of the first to fall a victim to his own device.

SOCIAL LIFE AND MANNERS.

Food.—Amongst the *upper classes* three meals were taken daily.

8 a.m.—Breakfast,—of Meat, Bread, and Ale.

Noon.—Dinner,—of Fish, Flesh, Fowl; Sweets; Dessert; Wine, and other liquors.

6 p.m.—Supper,—the same as breakfast.

The *working-classes* had generally abundance of plain food,—their bread being usually of barley or rye, and, in times of dearth, of pulse and acorns.

Fresh meat was eaten only between Midsummer and Michaelmas.

A Statute of Henry VIII. fixes the price of beef and pork at $\frac{1}{2}$ d. per lb.,—and of mutton and veal at $2\frac{1}{2}$ farthings.

Dress.—The Fashions fluctuated greatly during this period, especially amongst the ladies,—the only tolerably constant features of whose dress were the long-waisted boddices, and a wimple, or a cap.

The principal points common to the male attire throughout were—

1. Gentlemen,—Flat caps, or steeple-crowned hats adorned with gold band and feather,—slashed doublets,—vests,—trunk-hose,—short under-cloak,—and long over-cloak. The hair was short,—and curled, or brushed up on end, and the beard pointed.

2. Townspeople,—Like the Blue-Coat boys.

3. Country-folk,—Like townspeople, with the difference of a russet-leather doublet.

The changes of fashion under the several reigns were as follows:—

Under Henry VIII.—In imitation of the King, when he grew unwieldy, the courtiers' *stuffed* their *doublets and hose* with rags, feathers, &c., to increase their bulk,—and adopted huge, *square-toed boots*, which grew to such an outrageous extent that a Proclamation was issued, confining their width at the toes to 6 inches.

Dress generally was marked by great variety.

Catherine Howard introduced pins from France. Being expensive at first, gentlemen allowed their wives

special cash for purchasing them,—whence the term ‘pin-money’=pocket-money.

Under Edward VI.—Patches on the face were introduced by a foreign lady, who, having a wen, adopted this expedient for hiding it.

Under Mary.—Priests’ robes became very rich and costly. A tendency to ruinous extravagance in dress was manifest.

An Act was passed forbidding, under penalty of imprisonment and fine, the wearing of silk by anyone possessing an income of less than £20.

Under Elizabeth.—All were ordered to wear caps,—to encourage that home-manufacture.

Black silk-stockings were introduced,—Mrs. Montague making the first pair for the Queen.

The Earl of Oxford introduced from abroad perfumed leather doublets, embroidered gloves, scents, and cosmetic washes.

The “*Fardingale*,” or hooped petticoat, was introduced from Spain.

Ruffs were worn on neck and wrists by both sexes. They were first stretched out on slips of wood, ivory, and metal,—afterwards by starching, which art was introduced by Mistress Dinghen Van den Plasse, a Flemish refugee. The neck-ruffs and gentlemen’s rapiers grew to such outrageous proportions that, at length, it was found necessary to station citizens at the gates to cut down the former to one nail in depth, and the latter to one yard long.

Ladies used wine as a cosmetic. *Mary of Scots bathed in it*, and we find Shrewsbury, when her keeper, begging for an increase in his allowance for her keep, to supply this costly habit!

The gentlemen were, also, accustomed to paint their faces!

Elizabeth issued several sumptuary laws against ‘excess of apparel,’ ordering her own household to set a good example in this respect, and all nobles, clergymen, mayors, and magistrates to see the statutes carried out in their own households. She seems to have ignored the fact that *she* chiefly was answerable for the terribly reckless extravagance of dress that infected the upper and lower classes!

Houses—The nobility and gentry replaced the feudal

castles by splendid mansions. Fine specimens of the "Elizabethan Style" still exist.

The townspeople built houses, with carved fronts, and of many storeys overlapping one another. These were generally of wood; but brick was beginning to be used in London.

The lower classes inhabited rude cabins of wood, or wattle-work, plastered over with mud and clay,—and, under Hy. VII., first began to think of chimneys to their hovels.

Furniture,—very scanty, and, excepting plate, common. The floors of even the best houses, until towards the end of the period, were strewn with boughs or rushes, instead of carpets.

In Hy. VII.'s reign, all but the higher classes slept on straw, or flock, pallets, covered with a sheet, and with a bag of chaff, or a log of wood, as a bolster. Servants and the lower orders had only a straw mat, generally without covering. This state of things had improved greatly by the end of Eliz.'s reign; but, even then, feather-beds were very rare amongst the middle classes, who, also, during this period, exchanged wooden, for pewter, dishes and spoons.

Amusements.

Outdoor.—Hawking, dying out however :—Hunting :—Tilting on the water, in place of the Tournament :—Horse-racing, which now became a regular sport :—Bear and Bull-baiting (very popular) :—Football, and other games at ball, (encouraged by the clergy on Sunday evenings).

Archery, greatly encouraged. By a Statute of 1511, every man was to teach his sons the use of the bow, when they had reached their seventh year. Another Act, 1542, orders all males, except clergymen, under 60, to practise the long-bow, and, (to encourage its use), forbidding artificers and others to play tennis, bowls, cards, or dice, save on Christmas Day.

Archery, however, died out inevitably, and made way for fire-arms.

Indoor.—The Drama, which took its rise during this period :—Tennis :—Dancing :—Backgammon :—Shovel-Board :—Chess :—Cards :—Music.

Christmas Day, with its "mummers,"—and May Day, with its pole, and dances, were the two "good old English" festivals.

Condition of the Lower Orders.—Prosperous on the whole. They were, as a rule, well-fed and clad; but the increase of vagrancy shows a scarcity of employment.

Before the Reformation crime was awfully prevalent amongst them,—2,000 being the yearly average of those hanged, under Hy. VIII., for robbery alone. The number had, under Eliz., fallen to between 300 and 400.

Population.—About four and a half million.

TRADE, MANUFACTURES, &c.

Notwithstanding monopolies, and many vexatious impositions, home-trade flourished and grew, while our silk and woollen manufactures received a powerful impetus from the immigration of French and Flemish refugees.

The following are the chief statutes passed for regulating trade and manufactures:—

Hy. VIII.—Any wine-merchant refusing to sell any wines, for cash, to forfeit the value of the liquor demanded.

Mary.—No one to work as a weaver, without having served an apprenticeship:—no woollen weaver living in the country to keep above two looms and two apprentices.

Elisabeth.—Statute regulating the leather manufacture thus:—

1. Tanners not to tan bull, horse, or sheep-hides,—and not to be curriers, or shoemakers also.

2. Tanned leather to be sold only in open market, or fair.

3. Searchers to examine all shoes and leather-wares, to see whether deceitfully made, or not.

Coinage.—Hy. VII. first struck sovereigns and half-sovereigns.

Hy. VIII. greatly debased, and lowered the value of, the currency. He reduced the proportion of silver to alloy from 92.5 to 33.3, and then to 25 %; and, whereas Ed. IV. had coined 450 pence out of a pound, Hy. made first 576, and then 864 pence from that amount.

Ed. VI. also further deteriorated the coinage. He first issued crowns, half-crowns, and sixpences.

Elisabeth restored the purity of the currency; but coined 720 pence out of a pound.

The average *Rate of Interest* was 10 %.

Wages.—Under Hy. VII. the wages of carpenters, masons, and other artificers, were fixed by statute at 6d. a day in summer, and 5d. in winter.

Under Elizabeth, an Act was passed empowering Justices, in Quarter Sessions, to fix annually the rate of wages in their divisions, and to enforce payment of them.

At the end of Eliz.'s reign artificers were receiving 1s. 2d. a day; but this was not really a higher wage than that under Hy. VII., since commodities had risen so greatly in price.

AGRICULTURE AND HORTICULTURE.

Agriculture.—It has been already stated that large tracts of arable and common land were turned into sheep-walks.

To check this a statute was passed under Henry VIII., which declares that many "greedy and covetous people" have put all the land they can into pasture, because of the profit from sheep, and that, in consequence, the price of corn, cattle, wool, pigs, &c., has risen;—and enacts that no one shall keep more than 2,000 sheep, under penalty of 3s. 4d. for each animal kept above the limited number.

Wheat varied in price, during the period, from 4s. 4d. to 26s. 8d. per quarter.

Horticulture, which had languished under the Lancastrian Kings, revived and flourished.

Under Henry VIII.—The following objects of culture were introduced:—

Pale Gooseberry, and Hop, from the Netherlands, (whence, also, Henry's gardener *re-introduced* the Cherry, the first Cherry-orchards of Kent being now planted near Sittingbourne),—Pippins,—Damask Rose,—three kinds of Plums, by Cromwell,—Currant, from Zante,—and Figs, being first planted by Pole, at Lambeth.

Carrots and turnips were first used as food in this reign.

Under Elizabeth.—The Potato was brought by Drake from Santa Fé, and planted in Lancashire: Raleigh introduced it into Ireland.

The Lime was first grown in England.

LITERATURE, &c.

The Language was Middle English till 1550,—and afterwards Modern English.

During this period its structure was completed.

Literature.—The multiplication of books, consequent upon the Invention of Printing, the Revival of Learning, and the Reformation, led, in the middle of the 16th century, to a marvellous intellectual resurrection, which issued under Elizabeth and James in the *Augustan Age* of English literature, during which an incredible number of works were produced, most of them of high value and great originality, and many of them the offspring of our noblest geniuses. It was the age of Shakespeare, Spenser, Hooker, and Bacon! Never before, or since, in any country, has there been assembled such a brilliant galaxy of authors.

Education,—was in a very backward state at the commencement of the period.

The “Revival of Learning,” i.e. of the study of the Classics, was caused by the capture of Constantinople by the Turks in 1453. The Greek scholars of that city were scattered throughout Europe, and reintroduced the works of their great authors, whence arose an enthusiastic study of the ancient Latin and Greek writers.

England, however, was considerably behind in this movement. Learning was in a very low condition at the Universities, under Henry VII,

With Henry VIII.'s accession came a change. Linacre, Latimer, Colet, More, and others, united to raise the standard of education, and found an enthusiastic patron in Henry, who, by their influence, invited Erasmus to England, 1510, to teach Greek at Cambridge,—his students, however, being few, and never advancing beyond the Grammar.

A few years afterwards, there were in both Universities many who could both read and write Greek, Wolsey founding the first Greek chair at Oxford. The study of this language was effectually promoted at a later period by Smith, afterwards Secretary of State to Elizabeth,—Sir John Cheke,—and Roger Ascham.

The desire to read the New Testament in the original also led to increased attention being paid to that language.

Classical lectures were established in all the Oxford colleges, by Royal authority, 1535.

From the reign of Hy. VIII. onwards, large numbers of Colleges and "Grammar Schools" were founded, which gave a mighty impetus to education, which gained some ground amongst the lower classes also, owing to the multiplication, and consequent reduction in price, of books.

But though *reading* became more general, *writing* was an accomplishment utterly unknown to the labourer and artizan, and extremely rare amongst the middle class, *e.g.* Shakespeare's father and mother were ignorant of the art!

The discipline in schools was extremely severe, and even in the Universities bodily chastisement was frequent.

The principal Colleges and Schools founded during this period were—

Under Hy. VIII.,—

Christ Church, Oxon, begun by Wolsey, and intended by him to be called "Cardinal College;" finished by Hy.

Wolsey obtained the money for establishing this College, by the suppression of 40 monasteries, in consequence, as he himself declares, of the immorality he found prevailing in them, when, as Papal Legate, he was induced by Fox, Bp. of Hereford, to commence a visitation of religious houses. Thus Wolsey, the great champion of the Romish Church, taught Cromwell the most effectual means of ruining it.

Trinity College, Cambs.

Saint Paul's School, by Colet, 1509.

Corpus Christi College, Cambs.

Taunton Free School.

Grantham do. do.

} by Rd. Fox.

Under Ed. VI.,—

Christ's Hospital, by Ed., 1553.

Under Mary,—

St. John's College, Cambs.

Under Elizabeth,—

Westminster School, 1560.

Rugby do., by Sheriffe.

Many authorities state that the *first newspaper* appeared in England during Elizabeth's reign,—viz the "*English Mercurie*," published by Burleigh's authority, to give intelligence concerning the Armada when it was off our shores.

The statement is grounded on the fact that there exist, in the British Museum, amongst Dr. Birch's collection, Nos. 50, 51, and 54 of the "*Mercurius*." But it has been ascertained that these are literary forgeries of the Doctor himself.

The first English newspaper really belongs to the reign of James I.

SCIENCE.

Many crude works on various branches appeared; but of science proper they were innocent. The Baconian system was to be applied in its study, before progress could be made in science.

Medicine and Surgery made considerable progress,—the *College of Physicians* being founded, 1518, with Linacre at its head.

In 1540, the bifold occupation of barber-surgeon was separated into two callings:—Barbers being prohibited henceforth from bleeding, and Surgeons from shaving, &c.

FINE ARTS.

Painting.—At a low ebb. Most of the artists were foreigners.

Under Hy. VIII.,—*Hans Holbein*, a native of Augsburg, settled in England, and entered Hy.'s service, as portrait-painter. He was also a wood engraver. Died of the plague, 1553.

Under Mary,—*Sir Antonio More*, a native of Utrecht, came over with Philip, to paint Mary's portrait, and remained in England, practising his art, till her death, when he returned to Spain.

Elizabeth felt no sympathy for the Art, excepting flattering portraits of herself!

Under her, the artists in England were mostly Dutch and Flemish: but two exquisite native miniature painters, —Nicholas Hilliard and Isaac Oliver,—flourished.

Architecture.—The prevailing style is called the *Tudor*, or *Florid*,—distinguished by lavish and minute ornament. Hy. VII.'s Chapel, at Westminster, is the finest existing specimen left us.

About 1540 was introduced the "*Debased*,"—heavy, inelegant, irregular, and incongruous.

Sculpture.—Almost a blank.

Music.—English composers highly distinguished themselves in church music, and glees.

Under **Hy. VIII.** flourished *Tye, Tallis, and Birde.*

Ed. VI. warmly encouraged Psalmody, keeping a large choir.

Under **Elizabeth** the "*Madrigal*" attained perfection,—its best composers being *Morley, Dowland, and Wilbye.*

The favorite instruments for chamber-music were the lute, and the Virginals (keyed and one-stringed).

CELEBRATED PERSONS.

(Authors arranged in order of birth,—the rest, in order of death.)

N.B.—Those candidates who require to study the Literature of the Period must omit those lives marked with an Asterisk, as they will again occur.

The lives and works of those whose names are marked thus † must be learned from the "Literature," the names only of the works, however, requiring attention.

AUTHORS.

1. Poets and Dramatists.

* **Wm. Dunbar** (1460-1520).

Chief Works.—*The Dances of the Seven Deadly Sins,—The Thistle and the Rose,—The Golden Terge.*

* **Gavin Douglas** (1474-1522).—Son of Earl of Angus,

—Bp. of Dunkeld.

Chief Works.—*The Palace of Honour,—Translation of the Æneid.*

* **Sir David Lindsay**, "of the Mount," (1490-1557).

Chief Works.—*The Three Estates,—History of Squire Meldrum.*

* **Geo. Buchanan** (1506-1582).—Tutor to Mary of Scots, and James VI.,—fine classic.

Chief Works.—*Latin Metrical Version of the Psalms,—History of Scotland.*

† **Henry Howard, Earl of Surrey.**

* **Thomas Sackville, Lord Buckhurst, and Earl of Dorset (1536-1608).**—Lord High Treasurer.

Works.—Part of the *Mirroure of Magistrates*, including the *Induction*, and the *Complaint of Henry, Duke of Buckingham*.

Acts IV. and V. of *Gorboduc*, or *Ferrex and Porrex*, the first English Tragedy,—acted 1562.

* **Nicholas Undal (fl. 1550).**—Master of Eton.

Work.—*Ralph Royster Doyster*,—the earliest English comedy,—acted 1551.

† **Sir Walter Raleigh.**

* **Edmund Spenser (1553-1599).**—Born in London,—educated at Cambridge,—tutor in the U.,—lived some time at Sidney's seat,—introduced by Leicester to Eliz.; but found little but disappointment at Court, owing to Burleigh's enmity,—made Secretary to Lord Grey, Viceroy in Ireland, and received a grant of 3,000 acres of Desmond's confiscated lands,—in Tyrone's Rebellion, had his Castle burned, (with a newly-born infant), and was forced to flee,—reached London, and died in three months, poor and broken-hearted.

Spenser was the greatest poet between Chaucer and Shakespeare.

Chief Works.—*THE FAERIE QUEENE*,—the finest poem of the Period. It is a Gothic allegorical chivalric Romance. It was intended to extend to 12 Books, each narrating the Adventures of a Knight typifying some moral quality. Only six Books, however, were completed.

The Shepherd's Calendar,—*The Tears of the Muses*,—*Colin Clouts Come Home Again*,—*Astrophel*, (an Elegy on Sidney),—*Epithalamium*.

† **Sir Philip Sidney.**

* **Samuel Daniel (1562-1619).**—"The well-languaged,"—Master of the Revels to Elizabeth, and Poet-Laureate.

Works of the Period.—*Musophilus*,—*Masques*,—and Minor Poems.

* **Christopher Marlowe (1563-1593).**—The greatest dramatist before Shakespeare.

Chief Works.—Best plays,—*Tamburlaine, Faustus, The Jew of Malta, Edward II.*,—Minor Poems.

* **Michael Drayton (1563-1631).**—Of humble origin, but enabled, by the patronage of the Countess of Bedford and others, to devote himself to literature.

Chief Works of the Period.—*The Barons' Wars, England's Heroical Epistles, The Muses' Elysium, Nymphidia.*

* **William Shakespeare (1564-1616).**—Born and educated at Stratford-on-Avon,—became a lawyer's clerk,—at twenty-one went to London to seek his fortune on the stage,—became, successively, actor, adapter of plays, and original dramatist,—amassed wealth,—and retired, on a competency, to Stratford, 1612.

He wrote, in all, either 35, 36, or 37 Plays,—it being doubtful whether he wrote *Pericles* and *Titus Andronicus*.

Works of this Period:—

DRAMAS.—24, reckoning the total of his Plays at 37.

Tragedies.—4, the best being *Romeo and Juliet, Othello, and Hamlet*.

Comedies.—11, the best being *A Midsummer Night's Dream, The Comedy of Errors, The Merchant of Venice, and The Merry Wives of Windsor*.

Purely Historical Plays.—9, the best being *Henry IV., Parts I. and II., and Richard III.*

POEMS.—*Venus and Adonis, The Rape of Lucrece.*

* **Sir Henry Wotton (1568-1639).**—Ambassador to Venice, under James I.,—took orders, and died Provost of Eton.

Works.—Miscellanies in Poetry and Prose, collected and published after his death, as *Reliquiæ Wottonianæ*.

* **John Donne (1573-1631)**—Entered the church in middle age, but rapidly gained popularity as a preacher,—became Dean of St. Paul's.

Works.—*Satires, Elegies, Epigrams, Amatory Pieces,*—and Religious Poems,—Sermons.

* **Ben Jonson (1574-1637).**—Posthumous son of a clergyman,—born in London,—educated at Westminster

School,—left home to avoid working at bricklaying, his stepfather's trade, and served in the Low Countries as a common soldier,—returned to London, and, at twenty, became an unsuccessful actor, and then a dramatical writer,—was made Poet-laureate,—died in difficulties,—buried upright in Westminster Abbey.

Our greatest Dramatist next to Shakespeare.

Chief Works of the Period:—

DRAMAS.—Comedies.—*Every Man in His Humour*,—*Every Man out of His Humour*.

Tragedy.—*Sejanus*.

Masques, Interludes, and other entertainments.

POEMS.—Miscellaneous.

PROSE.—*English Grammar*,—posthumous,—only a fragment of the original work.

* **Joseph Hall (1574-1656).**—"The English Seneca,"—Bishop of Norwich.

Chief Work of the Period.—*Virgidemiarum* (= a harvest of rods),—Satires.

2. Historians.

† Sir Thos. More.

† John Leland.

† John Stowe.

† Rd. Hakluyt.

† Raphael Holinshed.

† Wm. Camden.

3. Theologians and Biblical Scholars.

(including Erasmus and Luther, who were intimately connected with English History during this Period).

† John Fisher.

Desiderius Erasmus (1467-1536).—*Theologian, Biblical and Classical Scholar.*—Born at Rotterdam,—left orphan at 14,—brought up as a Monk by his guardians, who wished to keep his property,—assumed the monastic habit, but, disliking it, quitted the cloisters to reside, by invitation, with the Bishop of Cambray, where he was ordained priest. Went to Paris, and gave private lectures for a living,—1497, paid a visit to England, and was well received,—returned, and spent several years on the Con-

tinent, taking his Doctor's degree in Italy,—revisited England, at Henry VIII.'s invitation, 1510,—made Margaret Professor of Divinity, and Greek Lecturer at Cambridge,—retired to the Continent, 1514, and, residing chiefly at Basel, devoted the remainder of his life to literary toil.

He was learned, acute, and witty; but was a moral coward, caring more for ease than for truth and the Reformation. On this account, and because of his peculiar views on Free Will, he was bitterly attacked by Luther.

Works.—*Edition of Greek Testament*, with Latin translation. *Colloquies*,—excited great attention, and, to the rage of the Monks, greatly contributed to expose the errors of Rome, and advance the Reformation.

Panegyric on Folly, (Moria),—punningly dedicated to More,—said to have been written in a post-chaise, to beguile a journey.

Ciceronianus,—*De rectâ Latini Græcique Sæmonis Pronunciations*,—*Ecclesiastes*, or the *Manner of Preaching*,—*Treatise on Free Will*, which roused Luther's hostility.

† **Hugh Latimer.**

Martin Luther (1483-1546),—*Theologian, Metaphysician, and Biblical Scholar*.—Son of a miner at Eisleben in Saxony,—educated at Erfurt University with a view to the law; but, being deeply impressed by religious convictions, decided on adopting a monastic life, and was received into the Augustine order.

In his cell he studied ardently the Scriptures and the Fathers, being deeply anxious to discover the true "way of salvation." After long and agonizing doubts and struggles, and unsatisfying endeavours to quiet his conscience and satisfy his heart by fasting, penance, and good works, light broke in upon his mind, and *Justification through Faith in Christ* was henceforth his watchword.

During the prosecution of his enquiries he had met with many things in the Scriptures which appeared to him condemnatory of much that he saw and heard in the Roman Catholic Church. His misgivings were increased when, being sent to Rome on business connected with his order, he witnessed the corruptions in that city, and it was not

long before an event happened that fully opened his eyes to the enormities of the Romish system, and roused him to that protest that ended in his severance from the Pope, and the establishment of the Reformation.

Leo X., in order to raise money to finish building St. Peter's, at Rome, organized an extensive sale of pardons.

Tetzel, a Dominican, conducted the traffic in Saxony,—offering pardons not only for the most heinous crimes in the past, but also for those that might be in contemplation in the future.

In his rounds in 1517, he reached Wittenberg, where Luther was now Professor of Theology and Philosophy. Horrified at the infamous traffic, Luther protested, and preached against indulgences, exposing the vicious lives of their vendors. Not satisfied with this, however, he nailed to the door of the Cathedral his celebrated 95 propositions, condemning Indulgences in the most unmeasured terms, and announcing his cardinal doctrine,—Justification by Faith.

This bold step aroused the attention and interest of Germany, already predisposed in favour of the Reformation, in consequence of the grasping and arrogant character of the superior ecclesiastics.

The Pope summoned Luther to Rome to answer to him for his conduct. By the interference of the Elector of Saxony, however, he was allowed to appear, instead, before the Papal Legate, Cardinal Cajetan, at Augsburg, 1518.

The Legate treated him harshly and unfairly, and advised him to recant his views: Luther refused, and appealed to the Pope.

Meanwhile he pursued his enquires into the Romish system, and became satisfied of the baselessness and blasphemy of the Pope's assumptions, and of the unscriptural character of many of the doctrines of the Romish Church which he had hitherto believed.

In 1519, in an assembly in the Palace of Leipsic, he maintained that *the Bible is the only rule of Faith, and the right of each man to interpret it for himself.*

Having thus withdrawn entirely from the Church of Rome, he was excommunicated, 1520. In scornful contempt he burned the bull, with the Papal canons and decretals, at the gate of Wittenberg.

In 1521, he was ordered by Charles V. to appear at the Diet of Worms, which the Emperor had summoned in order to check Protestantism, which was now rapidly spreading over Germany.

The bold Reformer went, provided with a safe-conduct signed by Charles,—met his opponents with undaunted front,—successfully defended himself, and confuted them.

It was, however, decided that the arch-heretic should suffer the extreme penalty, and orders were issued to arrest him as soon as the period covered by his safe-conduct should have elapsed,—and to suppress his works.

On his way home he was seized, for his own safety's sake, by order of the friendly Elector of Saxony, and concealed nine months in the Castle of Wartburg, where he employed himself upon his translation of the Bible into German.

During this time Henry VIII. wrote his celebrated work against the Reformer. Luther replied. In vigour, logic, and learning the advantage rested with Henry, while Luther's book was marred by its scurrility, for indulging in which he apologized to Henry in after years.

An anonymous answer, (written probably by More), to Luther's reply appeared, in which his abuse is retorted with interest.

Adrian and Clement successively demanded the execution of the sentence upon Luther; but the German princes, amongst whom the reformed doctrines had widely spread, appealed to a General Council as the only competent tribunal to decide the points at issue.

The Reformation, meanwhile, was taking mighty strides in Germany, its progress being facilitated by the constant occupation Charles V. had in repressing the encroachments of the Turks.

In 1526, the First Diet of Spire was assembled to decide religious differences. It resolved to request a General Council, and that, during the interim, each State should regulate its own ecclesiastical affairs.

A Second Diet of Spire, however, was summoned by Charles in 1529, in which the influence of the Pope, (with whom the Emperor had lately effected a reconciliation), was paramount. The decrees of the former assembly were revoked,—it was declared that any further changes made before the holding of a General Council would be illegal,

—and the sentence of the Diet of Worms was ordered to be carried out.

The Lutheran princes present issued a *Protest* against these proceedings,—whence originated the title "*Protestants*."

In 1530, Luther and others drew up an epitome of their religious system, and gave it to the Emperor, for his consideration. In consequence he assembled the Diet of Augsburg, at which the Protestants presented their famous *Confession of Faith*, almost identical with the document they had composed for Charles. The Emperor, after hearing both sides, ordered all to return to their allegiance to Rome.

The Reformers refused, and entered into the League of Smalcald, for their mutual support and defence.

The struggle lasted for twenty years, and was not altogether bloodless.

It was ended by the Second Diet of Augsburg, which decided that all Protestants should be free from the Papal jurisdiction, and that Germany should enjoy complete religious toleration.

Luther married Catherine Bora, a nun. He was a grand being,—of massive intellect, leonine courage, and noblest and most generous emotions: evidently one of those God-sent heroes who have a mission in the world for which they are especially fitted.

His faults resulted from his enthusiastic temperament, his terrible earnestness, and his intense scorn of all that was low and crafty.

In abusing his opponents he was, though inexcusable, not singular: it was the fashion of the age, and extended to much later times. The following specimens, in his choicest vein, may interest:—

"The Papists are all asses, and will always remain asses. Put them in whatever sauce you choose, boiled, roasted, baked, fried, skinned, beat, hashed, they are always the same asses."

"What a pleasing sight would it be to see the Pope and the Cardinals hanging on one gallows, in exact order, like the seals which dangle from the bulls of the Pope?"

"It is hard to say if folly can be more foolish, or stupidity more stupid, than is the head of Henry. He has not

attacked me with the heart of a king, but with the impudence of a knave. . . . This Henry has lied."

Chief Works.—*Translation of Bible into German.*

Commentary on Galatians,—a noble exposition of the doctrine of Justification by Faith.

There is in this, and all his other works, (leaving his controversies out of the question), much that is coarse and vulgar. This is explicable on the grounds of his low origin, and of his desire to speak in such plain terms as to be understood by even the commonest people.

† **Miles Coverdale.**—*Learn full particulars of his Biblical labours.*

† **Thos. Cranmer.**—*Learn full particulars of his Biblical labours.*

† **John Hooper.**

† **Wm. Tyndale.**—*Learn full particulars of his Biblical labours.*

† **Nicholas Ridley.**

† **Reginald Pole.**

† **Richard Cox.**

† **Matthew Parker.**—*Full particulars of Biblical labours.*

† **John Knox.**

† **John Foxe.**

† **Edmund Grindal.**

† **John Jewell.**

† **John Whitgift.**

† **Thomas Cartwright.**

† **Robert Brown.**

* **Rd. Hooker (1554-1600).**—Country clergyman,—one of the greatest English prose-writers.

Works.—*On the Laws of Ecclesiastical Polity*,—Sermons.

† **John Rogers.**—*Full particulars of Biblical labours.*

Miscellaneous.

* **Wm. Caxton (1410-1491).**—A London mercer,—then agent for the Merchant Adventurers' Company in Flanders,—entered the service of Margaret of Burgundy,—acquired the art of printing, and introduced it into

England, setting up the first press in England, in Westminster Abbey, 1476.

He translated, or wrote, and printed over 60 works.

Chief Works of this Period.—*The Booke of Taylles of Armes*,—*Golden Legend*,—*The Booke of Eneydos*.

* **John Colet (1486-1519).**—Dean of St. Paul's.

Chief Work.—*Latin Grammar*,—the best yet published.

* **Sir John Cheke (1514-1557).**—Professor of Greek at Cambridge,—tutor to Ed. VI.

Chief Works.—*Translation of St. Matthew*,—*The Hurt of Sedition*.

* **Roger Ascham (1515-1568).**—Tutor to Lady Jane, and to Elizabeth, who made him her Latin Secretary.

Chief Works.—*The Schoolmaster*,—*Toxophilus*.

† **Sir Christopher Hatton.**

† **Sir Wm. Cecil, Lord Burleigh.**

† **Sir Edward Coke.**

Francis Bacon, Viscount St. Albans (1561-1626).

—Son of Sir Nicholas Bacon, Elizabeth's Lord Keeper, and nephew of Burleigh,—adopted the law, and had, at the end of Elizabeth's reign, acquired a great reputation as an author, advocate, and Parliamentary orator; but was kept from preferment by the Cecils. At James's accession, however, the tide turned. He was knighted, and became, successively, Solicitor-General, Attorney-General, Lord Chancellor, and Viscount St. Albans! Parliament impeached him for taking bribes, and for allowing Villiers to influence the sentences of the Court,—he pleaded guilty, was deprived of his office, and disqualified from ever holding another under government,—fined £40,000,—and ordered to be imprisoned during the King's pleasure. The fine and imprisonment were at once remitted by James, and, just before Bacon's death, the prohibition to hold office was withdrawn. He died of a fever, caught through stuffing a fowl with snow, to make the experiment whether that substance would preserve meat as effectually as salt does.

Works of this Period.—*Essays*,—and, perhaps, *Maxims and Elements of the Common Law*.

POLITICAL PERSONAGES, (not mentioned amongst Authors).

John Morton (1410-1500).—Born in Dorsetshire,—educated at Oxford,—a zealous Lancastrian, and ardent supporter of Hy. VI., notwithstanding which, Ed. IV. made him Bishop of Ely, and Lord Chancellor,—Rd. III. placed him in the custody of Buckingham, whom he succeeded in interesting on behalf of the Earl of Richmond, proposing, as a means of dethroning Richard, a marriage between Henry and Elizabeth. Having managed to escape, he joined Henry on the Continent. On Henry's accession, Morton was restored to his former offices, and became, eventually, Archbishop of Canterbury, and a Cardinal.

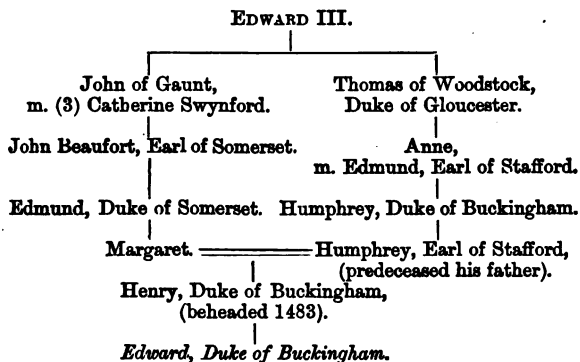
He assisted the King in exacting Benevolences, telling the rich they could afford to give, and those living economically that they must have money hoarded,—which method of treatment was called "**Morton's Fork.**"

Margaret, Duchess of Burgundy,—d. 1503.—Younger sister of Ed. IV.,—m. Charles the Bold, Duke of Burgundy, who, slain in battle, left her a widow,—a zealous Yorkist, and inveterate enemy of Hy. VII., supporting Simnel's and Warbeck's rebellions.

Edmund de la Pole, Earl of Suffolk,—d. 1513.—Younger brother of the Earl of Lincoln killed at Stoke. Having killed a man in an affray, he obtained a royal pardon, which Hy. VII., however, made him publicly plead in Court, on his arraignment. Highly offended, he left England, and took shelter with his aunt, the Duchess of Burgundy. Henry, however, induced him to return, and he was present at Prince Arthur's marriage. Quarrelling a second time with Henry, he again fled to the Netherlands, and there supported Warbeck's cause, for which he was attainted of treason. He was, after Margaret's death, given up to Henry by Archduke Philip on condition that the King would spare his life. Henry sent him to the Tower, and left instructions with his successor to put him to death, which he did without any new offence on Pole's part.

Edward Stafford, Duke of Buckingham,—d. 1521.—Son of the Buckingham executed under Rd. III.,—hereditary High Constable of England, and first peer of the

Realm, being descended, in the female line, from Ed. III.'s sons, John of Gaunt, and Thomas of Woodstock, as the following table shows:—



Having expressed his dissatisfaction at the Field of the Cloth of Gold, he incurred the resentment of Wolsey. A friar, named Hopkins, had predicted his succession to the throne, and Buckingham foolishly uttered vague hints of his obtaining the Crown, should Hy. die childless. For this he was, at Wolsey's instigation, accused of treason, and found guilty by a jury of Peers, who had no choice but to condemn him, so comprehensive had Henry's new statutes rendered treason.

His execution was universally bewailed, and reprobated. He was the last High Constable.

Richard Fox (1486-1528).—Born in Lincolnshire,—educated at Oxford, Cambridge, and Paris,—shared with Morton the confidence of Hy. VII., who made him successively, Bishop of Exeter, Bath and Wells, Durham, and Winchester.

Was one of Hy. VIII.'s chief advisers at the commencement of his reign, but, being supplanted by Wolsey, whom he had himself introduced to the King, retired to his diocese, and spent the remainder of his life in quietly doing good.

Founded Corpus Christi College, Cambridge, and Grantham and Taunton Schools.

Thomas Wolsey (1471-1530).—Said to have been son of a butcher or grazier at Ipswich,—educated at Magdalen College, Oxford, where he graduated at 14, being styled the “Boy Bachelor.”

On quitting college, he became tutor in the family of the Marquis of Dorset, who gave him the living of Lymington.

He next filled the post of deputy at Calais, for Sir John Nanfan, who recognised his talents, and recommended him to Hy. VII., who made him *Dean of Lincoln*, and employed him to negotiate his projected union with Margaret of Savoy,—a task which he performed to his master’s satisfaction.

Being introduced by Fox to Hy. VIII., he rapidly won the monarch’s good will, by heartily entering into, and taking the lead in, those extravagant pleasures which occupied the early years of the reign.

He was created Councillor and Royal Almoner, and soon became one of Henry’s chief advisers, acquiring over him a complete ascendancy, which, however, he so artfully concealed, that while ruling the king, he appeared blindly submissive.

He now became, successively, *Bishop of Tournay*, and *Durham*, (which see he afterwards exchanged for *Winchester*), *Archbishop of York*, and *Abbot of St. Albans (pro tem.)*,—holding all these benefices together, and also farming for foreign bishops, the sees of Bath and Wells, Worcester, and Hereford.

He received a *Cardinal’s hat*, 1515.

His revenue now equalled the King’s. He lived in great state and pomp, having a train of 800 followers and servants, amongst whom were sons of noblemen, knights, and gentlemen, while his dress, furniture, equipages, and liveries were magnificent.

In 1518, he was created *Papal Legate*, with the power of visiting the clergy and monasteries, and of suspending the laws of the Church for twelve months at a time.

He now made a greater display than before,—celebrating Mass, on festival days, in the same manner as the Pope, with nobles to give him water and towel,—and having bishops and abbots to wait upon him.

He established a Legatine Court, endowing it with full power over clergy and laity alike,—and assumed juria-

diction over the Bishops' Courts, and the right of disposing of all church preferment.

His great aim was the Popedom. Being promised it by Chas. V., he lent his influence to that monarch, and induced Henry to support him against Francis,—but being twice disappointed of the tiara, he withdrew his interest from the Emperor, and employed every possible means to detach Henry from his alliance.

When the Divorce was agitated, Wolsey urged it forward with all his energy, hoping, in case it should be obtained, to rivet Henry inseparably to the Pope, and rebuild the Church of Rome by his influence.

The conduct of Clement, however, ruined his hopes. Earnestly desiring the Divorce, he yet dared not disobey the Pope, and was, consequently, compelled to concur in the temporizing policy of the Pontiff.

Henry unjustly attributed the delay and difficulty in the matter to his minister, having such a lofty opinion of his abilities as to believe that he could accomplish the separation, if he would. In this the King was upheld by Anne Boleyn, who was a bitter enemy of the Cardinal.

The break-down of Campeggio's commission sealed his fate. In 1529 he was deprived of his Chancellorship, and ordered to retire to Esher, his country-seat near Hampton Court. York House, his town residence, which he had built, and which afterwards became Whitehall Palace, together with his plate and furniture, was seized by Henry.

On the meeting of Parliament, the Lords drew up against him 44 articles, accompanied by a petition to the King for his removal from power, and punishment.

The Articles being sent to the Commons, Cromwell boldly defended his master, and there appeared little chance of the charges against him being proved.

His enemies, accordingly, adopted the extraordinary expedient of laying an indictment against him of having, contrary to the Statute of Præmunire, procured bulls from Rome, particularly one investing him with legatine authority,—the charge being eminently unjust, since he had obtained them with Henry's knowledge and sanction.

He was, however, declared guilty, and "out of the

King's protection," and was sentenced to the penalty of *Præmunire*,—forfeiture of lands and goods, and imprisonment during the King's pleasure. The whole of the sentence was not, however, carried out. He was set at liberty, —left in possession of the sees of York and Winchester,—and part of his goods were restored.

His fall was hailed with joy by both clergy and laity, to whom his pride and arrogance had made him hateful.

In 1530 his enemies, especially Anne Boleyn, persuaded Henry to renew the prosecution.

He was arrested by the Duke of Northumberland, and started in custody of that nobleman, for London, to be tried.

Anxiety of mind and fatigue brought on dysentery on the journey. With difficulty the Cardinal reached Leicester Abbey, where he was received with profound respect by the abbot and monks. He took to his bed immediately upon his arrival, and expired Nov. 29.

His last words, addressed to his custodian, Sir Wm. Kingston, Constable of the Tower, were,—“Had I but served God as diligently as I have served the King, he would not have given me over in my grey hairs. Let me advise you, if you be one of the Privy Council, . . . take care what you put into the King's head: for you can never put it out again.”

Character.—Of great natural abilities, carefully-developed,—rapacious, because profuse,—greedy of power and fame,—selfish in nearly all his aims,—insufferably haughty to all equals,—tyrannical and oppressive, inciting Henry to unconstitutional acts,—of insinuating manners, and possessing the subtle power of gaining the ascendancy over others,—bigoted, and persecuting.

He almost totally neglected his Church duties, though a notorious pluralist, and devoted himself principally to State affairs.

His foreign policy was dictated by no consideration of patriotism, but merely by selfish considerations.

He was, however, a just judge,—learned, and an ardent encourager of learning,—and used his influence over Henry to restrain his brutal propensities,—that part of the monarch's reign when he was under the Cardinal's guidance contrasting favourably with the latter years of his rule.

The following is Shakespeare's estimate of Wolsey's character given in *Hy. VIII.*, in the scene between the divorced Queen Catherine, and her Gentleman-usher, Griffith, the former painting his black, and the latter his bright, side:—

Cath.

"He was a man

Of an unbounded stomach, ever ranking
Himself with princes; one that by suggestion
Tied all the kingdom: simony was fair-play:
His own opinion was his law: i' the presence
He would say untruths, and be ever double
Both in his words and meaning: he was never,
But where he meant to ruin, pitiful:
His promises were, as he then was, mighty;
But his performance, as he is now, nothing:
Of his own body he was ill, and gave
The clergy ill examples."

Griff.

"This Cardinal,

Though from an humble stock, undoubtedly
Was fashioned to much honour from his cradle.
He was a scholar, and a ripe and good one;
Exceeding wise, fair-spoken, and persuading;
Lofty and sour to them that loved him not,
But, to those men that sought him, sweet as summer.
And though he were unsatisfied in getting,
(Which was a sin), yet in bestowing, Madam,
He was most princely. . . .
His overthrow heaped happiness upon him:
For then, and not till then, he felt himself,
And found the blessedness of being little;
And, to add greater honour to his age
Than man could give him, he died fearing God."

Lord Montague,—d. 1539.—Elder brother of Cardinal Pole,—executed by *Hy. VIII.* for alleged treasonable correspondence with his brother.

Marquis of Exeter,—d. 1539 — Son of *Ed. IV.*'s younger daughter, Catherine,—executed by *Hy. VIII.*, for alleged treasonable correspondence with Cardinal Pole.

Thomas Cromwell, Earl of Essex (1490-1540).—Born at Putney,—son of a fuller, or a blacksmith,—received a moderate education,—was, successively, clerk in an English factory at Antwerp, and a soldier in Italy.

He then entered Wolsey's service,—became his solicitor,—and served him faithfully till his fall.

He first gained Henry's notice and regard by his warm defence of Wolsey, and then by suggesting that he should declare himself Supreme Head of the Church,—and was created Secretary of State.

He had adopted the reformed faith,—but concealed his opinions, and skilfully employed his influence with Henry to widen the breach between him and Rome.

After the King's assumption of the headship of the Church, Cromwell was made Vicar-General (a new office), and Henry's supreme authority over the Church delegated to him.

In this capacity he conducted the visitation, and dissolution of monasteries,—his labours being rewarded by large grants of the confiscated lands.

He lost Henry's favour by proposing the marriage with Anne of Cleves, and, though he was afterwards made Earl of Essex, and a K.G., his doom was sealed from the moment that the King beheld his bride.

He had made many enemies. The nobles were jealous of one who had risen so high from such a mean origin,—the Protestants generally suspected him for his apparent conformity to Rome, and the Roman Catholics hated him for his share in the suppression of monasteries, and other reforms in religion.

Taking advantage of the King's displeasure, his foes busily set themselves to procure his downfall, by poisoning Henry's mind against him, and succeeded.

Norfolk, his chief enemy, obtained a commission from the King to arrest him,—he was seized at the Council-table, and sent to the Tower.

A Bill of Attainder, accusing him of heresy and treason, passed both Houses without any trial,—even Cranmer voting against him.

The charge of treason was absurd and baseless,—but that of so-called "*heresy*" could, doubtless, have been substantiated.

He tried to bend Henry's determination, and save his life; but his efforts were fruitless, and he died on the scaffold,—one of the King's noblest victims.

Character.—Of extensive capacity, and great industry,—far-sighted,—prudent,—and firm.

Selfishly ambitious, and guilty of that dissimulation in religion which stained the characters of nearly all the prominent statesmen of his day.

The progress of the Reformation under Hy. VIII. owes more to Cromwell than to any others of the band who laboured with him in the good cause.

Margaret, Countess of Salisbury,—d. 1541.—Daughter of the Duke of Clarence, Ed. IV.'s brother,—Countess of Salisbury in her own right, the title descending to her from her grandfather, the Earl of Warwick and Salisbury, the "King-maker,"—m. Sir Rd. Pole,—attainted without trial by Hy. VIII., on a groundless charge of treasonable correspondence with her son, Cardinal Pole, 1539, but kept in captivity for two years, when, in consequence of a slight rising in Yorkshire, attributed to the Cardinal's instigation, she was brought to the scaffold.

She was the *last of the Plantagenets* by direct male descent.

Sir Thos. Audley, Lord Audley, d. 1544.—Succeeded More as, successively, Speaker of the Commons, and Chancellor,—raised to the Peerage, and made a K.G. by Hy. VIII., whom he unscrupulously served, while sedulously looking after his own interests, and obtaining large grants of the monastery lands.

Thomas Howard, 3rd Duke of Norfolk (1473-1554).—One of Hy. VIII.'s chief advisers,—a zealous Romanist, but feigned assent to Henry's supremacy as a matter of policy, that he might retain the King's favour, and so be able to stimulate his passion for Roman Catholicism, in order to urge upon him the persecution of the Protestants.

He put down the Pilgrimage of Grace.

He was arrested, with his son Surrey, on a charge of treason. There was not an atom of proof against him; but a Bill of Attainder against him passed both Houses, without any trial,—being hastened through the Commons by express command of Henry, who felt himself sinking. Norfolk, in hope of saving his life, confessed himself guilty! His death-warrant was, nevertheless, made out, and received the Royal assent,—the morning of the 29th being fixed for the execution.

Hy. VIII., however, died during the night of the 28th, and thus saved Norfolk, the Lieutenant of the Tower de-

ferring the execution, and the Council deciding against its being carried into effect.

The Duke was kept in prison during Ed. VI.'s reign; but was released by Mary, at her accession, and admitted to her confidence, which he did not long live to enjoy.

Lady Catherine Grey,—d. 1567.—Second sister of Lady Jane Grey,—m. Lord Herbert, 1553, but was divorced, by the influence of the Earl of Pembroke, at the accession of Mary, during whose reign Catherine lived retired, and professed Roman Catholicism.

Under Elizabeth she became, at her mother's death, heir-presumptive, (by Hy. VIII.'s will), to the Crown. She married, privately, the Earl of Hertford, eldest son of Protector Somerset. Elizabeth discovering the union, gave another instance of her unnatural repugnance to marriages generally, and to those of affection in particular, by confining the loving couple separately in the Tower, and causing Parker to hold an enquiry into the validity of the union. Unfortunately, owing to the necessarily hurried nature of the ceremony, Hertford had neglected to secure legal proof of the marriage,—and the Archbishop, consequently, pronounced their cohabitation unlawful.

Catherine was released, and placed under the care of her uncle, Lord John Grey,—but died, broken-hearted, soon after her liberation.

Her husband was kept in captivity for several years, and did not see his wife again after their first separation. He lived to extreme old age, and cherished fondly, to the last, his affection for the "wife of his youth."

Elizabeth's treatment of this unhappy pair is one of the most cruel and inhuman of all her tyrannous actions.

Lady Catherine had two children by Hertford, who were afterwards acknowledged, by law, to be legitimate.

Sir Francis Walsingham (1536-1590).—Born in Kent,—educated at Cambridge,—travelled much on the Continent, and became a good linguist, which accomplishment recommended him to the notice of Cecil.

After being employed in several embassies, he was knighted, and made Secretary of State.

Character.—Keen, and crafty,—of strict integrity and disinterested loyalty and patriotism, for, instead of taking advantage of his position to enrich himself, he spent his

inheritance in paying for private intelligence, and did not leave behind him enough to pay his debts.

He was zealously religious, and inclined to Puritanism, on which account he was no favourite of Elizabeth, though she highly appreciated the invaluable services he rendered her.

He was, in every respect, a worthy coadjutor of Cecil.

Edward Vere, Earl of Oxford,—d. 1604.—One of the most brilliant *beaux* of Elizabeth's court,—vain, haughty, and nervously sensitive.

As Lord High Chamberlain, assisted at Mary's trial,—held a command in the fleet fitted out against the Armada.

Lived seven years at Florence, more magnificently than the Grand Duke, and introduced, at his return, various Italian fashions into England.

His first wife was a daughter of Burleigh, who having refused to entertain his son-in-law's petition to spare his friend Norfolk, Oxford vowed to be revenged on his Countess. Accordingly, he separated from her, and wasted his large inheritance with the extremest prodigality.

Sir Robert Cecil, Earl of Salisbury, (1565-1612).—Younger son of Burleigh, during whose lifetime he became assistant, and then successor, to Walsingham,—succeeded his father as Secretary of State,—was instrumental in securing the succession of Jas. I., who continued him in his Secretaryship, gave him his chief confidence, made him Earl of Salisbury, and, four years before his death, Lord High Treasurer.

He possessed most of his father's high qualities.

NAVAL AND MILITARY COMMANDERS,

(not amongst Authors).

Thomas Howard, 2nd Duke of Norfolk, d. 1524.—Originally Earl of Surrey,—fought for Rd. III. at Bosworth, taken, attainted, and imprisoned in the Tower till 1488, when he was released, and restored to his Earldom.

One of Hy. VIII.'s closest intimates, and the chief promoter of those prodigal pleasures that occupied the King's earlier years.

Commanded the English at Flodden, and, for that glorious victory, was created Duke of Norfolk.

Charles Brandon, Duke of Suffolk, d. 1545.—A favourite of Hy. VIII., and one of the handsomest, and

most accomplished of his courtiers,—the favoured lover of the Princess Mary, before her marriage with Louisa.

At that monarch's death, Brandon was sent to Paris to congratulate Francis on his accession, and, at Mary's own request, married her privately, she being his third wife.

Henry professed great indignation at the union, but there is little doubt that he had favoured it all along. He allowed himself to be apparently pacified by Wolsey, and on the return of the pair to England, caused the marriage to be re-celebrated publicly, in his own presence. However, he made his sister pay dearly for exercising her own choice,—taking all her plate, jewels, and dowry, and binding her to repay him the cost of her wedding with Louis!

Brandon commanded an English army in France.

He was a great friend to the Reformation.

Mary pre-deceasing him, he married a fourth wife.

The title of Duke of Suffolk became extinct with him, but was conferred by Ed. VI. on his son-in-law, the Marquis of Dorset.

Robert Devereux, Earl of Essex, (1567-1601).—Step-son of Leicester, whom he accompanied to Holland, fighting bravely at Zutphen,—commanded troops sent to aid Hy. IV.,—aided in the expedition to reseat Don Antonio on the throne of Portugal,—and took Cadiz, after which he rose rapidly in the Queen's favour, becoming, in 1597, Earl Marshal. His proud spirit would not, however, always submit to her despotic domineering. On one occasion, when urging his fitness for the governorship of Ireland, offended at a speech of the Queen, he turned his back upon her,—the royal virago responded by a hearty box on his ear,—Essex grasped his sword, declaring that he would not bear such an insult from her father himself, and retired from Court in high dudgeon.

This breach was, however, healed, and on the death of Burleigh, the great enemy of Essex, he advanced still further in Elizabeth's good graces, and obtained, as Lord-Lieutenant, the command of the troops sent to Ireland to put down Tyrone's rebellion.

Failing miserably, and returning against Elizabeth's orders, to defend himself, he arrived early in the morning,—rushed into the Queen's bedchamber,—threw himself at her knees, and pleaded his cause. The Queen, taken by

surprise, and pleased to see her favourite, gave him a kind and hopeful reception and response.

But her anger returned upon reflection, and, when he called again, later in the day, received him coldly, and ordered him to be confined to his own house.

After two examinations before the Council, he was committed to the close custody of Lord-Keeper Egerton,—where he fell ill of chagrin. Elizabeth, hearing of his sickness, relented, and sent him a kind message, to the effect that she would visit him were it consistent with her honour. Essex, overjoyed, speedily recovered,—his enemies led the Queen to believe that his illness had been feigned, her harsh attitude was resumed, and her resentment was strengthened by fresh accounts from Ireland of his mismanagement, and by the clamour of the people at the injustice they alleged was being done to their favourite.

The Queen now determined to try him for his Irish *fiasco*, in the Star Chamber, but finally decided to bring him before the Council, who deprived him of his public offices, and sentenced him to imprisonment in his own house during Elizabeth's pleasure.

The Queen, however, gave him his liberty, and allowed him to retain the post of Master of the Horse; but forbade him the Court.

A monopoly of sweet wines, which had been granted him, expiring, the Queen, influenced by Cecil, and his other enemies, refused to renew it, declaring in her usual elegant style, that "an ungovernable beast must be stinted in his provender."

This insult was the last drop in his cup of bitterness, and was followed by his attempted rebellion, and execution.

Elizabeth had once given him a ring, which he was to send to her, in case he should ever be in danger, and at sight of which she promised him her aid and protection. She hesitated to sign his death-warrant, hoping and expecting that he would send the talisman; but, as it did not come, she grew enraged at his apparent proud obduracy, and allowed the sentence to take effect. Shortly before her own decease, she was asked by the Countess of Nottingham to attend her dying-bed. Elizabeth complied, and learned from the wretched woman that Essex had committed the ring to her to transmit to the Queen; but

that, by the influence of her husband, she had violated the trust, and retained the signet. Elizabeth is said to have viciously shaken the dying Countess, declaring that "God might forgive her, but *she* never would."

Character.—Generous and brave ; but rash, impulsive, deficient in judgment, and displaying meannesses inconsistent with moral nobility. His conduct *in re* the rebellion was unjustifiable,—but admits of palliation from the fact that the Queen's harsh conduct goaded him into it.

Chas. Howard, Lord Effingham, and Earl of Nottingham (1536-1624).—One of those amphibious warriors for whom Elizabeth's reign was famous.

First entered the army, and aided in putting down Northumberland and Westmoreland's Rebellion.

Created Lord High Admiral, 1585.

Commander-in-chief of fleets against the Armada, and Cadiz.

Made Lieutenant-General, 1599,—present at Elizabeth's death.

Under Jas. I. filled the post of ambassador to Spain,—spent his last years in retirement.

A man of high probity, and universally honoured : the only stain on his reputation is his treatment of Essex.

DIVINES, (not amongst Authors).

Robert Ferrar,—d. 1555.—Born at Halifax,—Prior of St. Oswald, till the "Dissolution,"—embraced Reformed tenets,—made by Ed. VI. Bishop of St. David's,—neglecting some form in connection with the Oath of Supremacy, was fined beyond his means, and imprisoned,—at the commencement of the Marian Persecution, was brought before Gardiner,—convicted of heresy,—and burned at Caermarthen.

MISCELLANEOUS, (not amongst Authors).

Elizabeth Barton,—"The Holy Maid, (or "Nun"), of Kent,"—d. 1534.—A young woman of Aldington, Kent, of weak intellect, and subject to hysterical convulsions. She was in the habit of giving vent to eccentric speeches, which the neighbours regarded as superhuman.

Masters, the vicar of the parish, and Dr. Bocking, a Canon of Canterbury, seeing in her a useful tool for the Roman Catholic cause, taught her to inveigh against the

Reformed faith, the changes in the Church, and Henry's proposed divorce, and proclaimed her utterances to be Divinely inspired.

The imposture was supported by monks all over the country, and even Fisher lent a credulous ear to the pretensions of the wire-pullers.

Her denunciations and quasi-prophecies went on, unmolested, for some years. At length, however, she went too far, by declaring, upon Henry's marriage with Anne Boleyn, that he was in the position of Saul, after his rejection, and that he would speedily die.

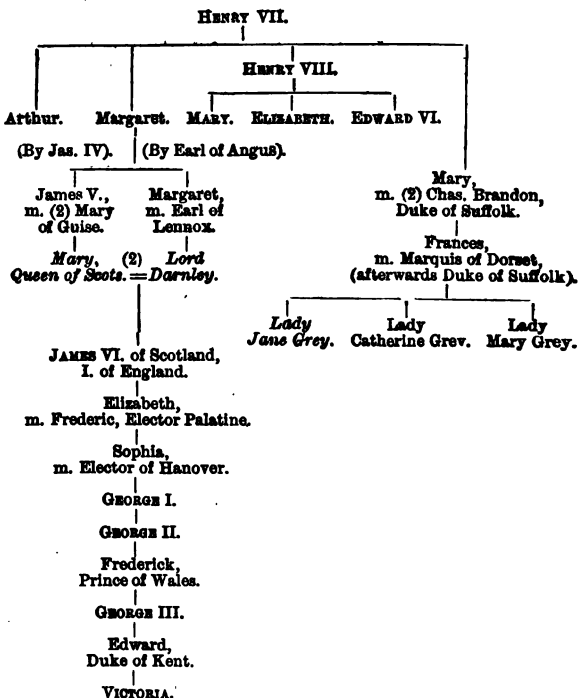
Henry considered it now high time to notice her vagaries, lest some zealous Romanist should render her prophecy, *in re* his death, into unwelcome fact!

Barton, Masters, Bocking, and others were accordingly arrested,—condemned for treason, and executed.

Sir Thos. Gresham (1519-1579).—Son of Rd. Gresham, a London merchant, who had filled the office of Lord Mayor,—educated at Cambridge,—joined the Mercers' Company,—agent at Antwerp for Hy. VIII., and Elizabeth, (who knighted him),—planned, and built the **Royal Exchange**, London, in imitation of that at Antwerp, and presented it to the nation: it was opened 1570,—founded, also, Gresham College, almshouses, and other benevolent institutions,—called "*The Royal Merchant*."

GENEALOGICAL TABLE OF THE TUDORS,

(Showing the descent of *Mary of Scotland, Darnley, James I., and Lady Jane Grey*,—and also *Queen Victoria's connection with the Line*).



LITERATURE OF THE TUDOR PERIOD, (1485—1603).

THE Literature of this Period admits of three divisions:—

1. The latter part of the 15th Century,—distinguished for Paucity of English Authors, (owing chiefly to the Wars of the Roses, and to religious persecution), and the Large Number of Scotch Writers,—the Revival of Learning,—and the Multiplication of Books.

2. The first half of the 16th Century,—distinguished for the Great Spread of Learning,—the “Increased Influence of Italian Literature” on our own,—and the Commencement of the Drama Proper.

3. The Reign of Elizabeth,—which forms, with that of James, the *Augustan Age* of English Literature. It is distinguished for the Perfection of the Drama,—and the Vast Number of High-class Works it produced. Under Elizabeth and James “we shall find the names of almost all the very great men that this nation has produced.”

[This division, though important to be remembered, will not be followed in the lists of Authors, as it would prove inconvenient.]

The *Language* was, up to 1550, *Middle English*. By that time its structure was completed, (the last step being the cessation of the Saxon distinctions of case and number), and it became, thenceforth, *Modern English*.

The Language was *affected* during the Period by—

1. The Study of, and Numerous Translations from the Greek, Latin, and French Classics.

The influence of these is seen in—

(1.) *The Vocabulary* of our tongue,—introducing new terms and compounds,—and preserving existing words, (since translators naturally hunt for a word already in the language, whereby to translate a foreign vocable, before coining a fresh one).

(2.) *The Style*,—shaping words in fresh syntactic forms,

"so as to present the thought more rhetorically, or more musically."

(Though *Italian* translations, also, abounded during this Period, they had little or no influence over our Vocabulary and Syntax.)

(3.) *Grammar*,—causing attention to be paid to this hitherto neglected subject.

English Grammars soon grew common; but, unfortunately, they were all constructed on the Latin model, instead of on the actual nature and origin of our speech,—whence it resulted that, until very recently, we have accepted a false and artificial system of Grammar.

To conserve the Saxon speech from being overwhelmed by such hosts of foreign invaders, there were—

(1.) The teaching and practice of many of our best writers.

(2.) Pleas, Statutes, and Parliamentary proceedings being in the old tongue.

(3.) The homely preaching of Latimer, and others.

(4.) The Translations of the Scriptures,—and the Book of Common Prayer, which, more than anything else, tended to purify and fix the language.

2. *Euphuistic tastes*, shewn in Hall, Donne, and many others.

POETS AND DRAMATISTS.

The English poetry of the early part of the 16th century is more modern in vocabulary and form, and more idiomatic, than the prose.

The Poetic language of *Scotland* began, towards the close of the 15th century, to differ widely from that of England, (both in spelling, and in the larger proportion of archaic forms and idioms it retained), and to take the form it still bears.

The *Versification* of the Poems of this Period was considerably affected by the study and translation of *Italian* models,—especially in lyrical compositions.

Ballads.—The latter half of the 15th century was fertile in this class of poems. *Chevy Chase*, one of the finest, was, probably, produced under Hy. VII.

But the *best* Ballads are those of the reigns of Mary of Scots, and Elizabeth. Those of the Border are the wildest and most fanciful,—while the Scotch compositions are decidedly superior to the English.

Most of the Ballads appear to have been the work of wandering minstrels, and are written in twelve-syllabled Iambics.

The end of Elizabeth's reign saw a reaction from the allegory of Spenser, and his imitators, to philosophical poetry.

The writers of this school have been termed, by Johnson, the "*metaphysical poets*," because "for direct thought and natural imagery, they substitute conceits, and remote, (often merely verbal), analogies."

A more correct term would, probably, be "*fantastic*."

The chief representatives of this style, during this Period, are Davies, Brooke, and Donne.

THE RISE AND PROGRESS OF THE DRAMA.

The origin of our regular Drama is to be found in the **Mysteries, or Miracle Plays**, which were popular in England from the 11th. to the end of the 14th. century.

They took their title from the sacred nature of their subjects, which were adapted from the Scriptures, or from the lives of Saints.

They existed at an early period of the Christian era, in the East,—were brought thence to the West by pilgrims,—became common throughout Roman Catholic Europe,—and found their way into England through France.

They were composed by the clergy, in Latin for the most part, and acted by them in cathedrals, convents, or the open air, on festivals, with a view to give religious instruction to the lower classes, and, perhaps, to abolish "the barbarous attachment to military games, and the bloody contentions of the tournament."

They were in mingled prose and verse,—sometimes in dumb-show,—and frequently lasted for several days.

Favourite Biblical subjects of the *Mysteries* were the Creation, Fall, Deluge, Crucifixion, &c. In the course of representation, the three Persons of the Godhead, Angels, Patriarchs, Saints, Men, and Devils appeared.

The stage consisted of three platforms, placed one above the other. The highest was the Heaven of Heavens, whereon Jehovah and Angels alone acted,—the second was Heaven, allotted to the "just made perfect,"—and the third represented Earth.

On one side of the lowest stage was represented a gaping pit, giving forth smoke, flames, groans, and shrieks'

This was supposed to be Hell, and hence ascended the devils, whose business was to play the buffoon, and to carry off doomed mortals from Earth.

Besides the amusing antics of the fiends, a comic element was provided in the quarrels and fights of Satan and the Vice, (a grotesque character, armed with a dagger or wand of lath). After many ludicrous struggles between the two, the Vice at last conquered, and carried the Devil off in triumph.

These *Mysteries* were a mass of absurdities and anachronisms, (e.g. God the Father being usually dressed like a Pope or Bishop),—yet they often contained passages of much force and beauty.

The "*Harrowing of Hell*," 1327, is the earliest of these productions we possess.

The *second step* was the supplanting of *Miracle Plays* by

Moralities, which began to be popular about the beginning of the 15th century, and continued in vogue till Hy. VIII.'s reign.

They derived their title from the fact that they conveyed *moral lessons*. Personal characters were replaced by allegorical personages representing abstractions, such as Youth, Gluttony, Avarice, Love, &c.

They were sometimes in dumb-show, as the *Mysteries* had been; but, unlike them, were not in the hands of the priests alone. They were extremely simple in action, and grave in tone; but the Devil and the Vice were still retained to make mirth for the spectators.

When the Reformation commenced, these plays were employed by Papists and Protestants respectively to support their own principles, and ridicule those of their antagonists.

In consequence, two statutes, bearing on the point, were enacted under Hy. VIII.,—the first passed before the King broke entirely with Rome,—the second, after the rupture—

1. No plays to be performed containing anything contrary to the Romish doctrines.

2. No plays to be performed that meddled with the interpretation of Scripture, (a direct attack upon Papist dramas).

The *third step*, into which the *Moralities* imperceptibly glided, was the

Interludes, which grew into importance under Henry VIII. Their name was derived from their being *played between* the acts of the long *Moralities*, or in the pauses of festivals.

The dialogue is briefer and merrier than in the *Moralities*,—the *Interlude* being, in fact, merely the modern *Farce*.

Like the *Moralities*, they were used as polemical engines.

In 1549, Edward's Council forbade, by Proclamation, the performance of all plays; but, afterwards, they made an exception in favour of Reforming Interludes.

The *Sottie* was a connecting link between the *Morality* and the *Interlude*,—resembling the former in its length, and the latter in its mirth, which was, however, of a lower and coarser kind. Finally,

The Regular Drama arose about the middle of the 15th century.

The great cause that led to its establishment was the revived study of Greek and literature.

The first dramas proper were then, naturally, Latin plays, (written and performed at the Universities).

The next step was the production of pieces in English by students of the Universities and Inns of Court, for the entertainment of the Sovereign on great occasions. In these we see the influence of classic models,—especially in the adoption of the *Chorus*, which long continued to be used by our playwrights in the reduced form of one person, who described the plot, and made moral reflections upon its evolution.

From the first, and as a consequence of adherence to ancient models, the English drama took the twofold shape of Tragedy and Comedy,—the former being based upon the *Morality*, and the latter on the *Interlude*.

Tragedy, amongst the Greeks, indicated *any drama of a sad tone*, whatever its end.

In Shakespeare's time, however, the term was applied to only such plays as *ended* tragically, and it is thus understood at the present day.

The earliest English tragedies were grave in language, and elevated and moral in tone. Their subjects were almost always sanguinary, and otherwise horrible, events. They boasted little delineation of character, and were totally deficient in that comic element, which.

in real life, exists in connection with the most tragic circumstances.

The first English Tragedy extant, is

Gorboduc, or Ferrex and Porrex, composed by Norton, who wrote the first three Acts,—and Sackville, who composed Acts IV. and V.

It was acted, 1562, before Elizabeth, at Whitehall, by the gentlemen of the Inner Temple.

The subject is taken from Geoffrey of Monmouth's *Chronicles*, and is treated in a classical manner.

The play sets forth the blessings of peace and fixed government,—and the mischief of rebellion and a doubtful succession. It is the first English drama written in Blank Verse, which, however, in this case, though regular, is unrelieved by variety of pause.

Damon and Pythias,—a tragi-comedy, by Richard Edwards,—was acted before Elizabeth, at Christ Church, Oxon, 1566.

Promos and Cassandra, by George Whetstone, was acted, 1578.

Comedy, amongst the ancients, meant a play full of laughable incident and dialogue.

In Shakespeare's time, however, the term was applied to all plays that *ended* happily, whatever their tone throughout might be,—and thus numerous dramas whose general tone was decidedly tragic came to be classed under the head of comedy.

We apply the title '*Comedy*' to those plays only "in which amusing matter preponderates,"—while we call dramas, whose general tone is tragic, but which *end* favourably, *Tragi-Comedies*.

Ralph Royster Doyster is the earliest English Comedy extant. It was written, on the Terentian model, by Nicholas Udall, Master of Eton, and first acted, 1551.

Ralph is a rich young coxcomb, one of the suitors of a pretty London widow. He is the dupe of a crowd of parasites, and is led to believe himself *the* favoured, until the lady's chosen lover returns from abroad. It is a capital picture of London middle-class life in the middle of the 16th century.

The plot is well-constructed,—and the dialogue lively. It is written in a doggerel rhyme well adapted for comedy.

Gammer Gurton's Needle, by Bishop Still, appeared about 1565.

It is based on the trivial incident of Gammer's needle being lost while she is mending her goodman Hodge's breeches,—“a loss comparatively serious, when needles were rare and costly.” After a long search, which constitutes the action of the play, Hodge, by sitting down, is made painfully conscious that his “old woman” has left the keen implement in the repaired garment.

The whole treatment is broadly farcical, and even low,—the humour being coarsely rustic.

It is, like “*Ralph*,” in doggerel verse.

For a considerable period after the establishment of the regular drama in England, there were no theatres,—plays being acted at Court, the Universities, and in the Inns of Court, and mansions of nobles and gentry. The actors were, usually, servants of the sovereign and the nobles, and, armed with a licence from the Master of the Revels, wandered about the country in bands, giving entertainments in private mansions, town-halls, and inn yards, (the galleries round which are represented by our box-circle).

Gradually, however, buildings were set apart for the special purposes of acting. Some of these were constructed for the purpose,—others were bull- and bear-baiting, and cock-fighting pits, (whence the name ‘pit’ given to that part of the theatre where the arena existed in those dens of barbarous sport), either turned into regular playhouses, or used alternately for play-acting and other entertainments.

The first licensed theatre in London was the *Blackfriars'*, which opened 1576. It and the *Globe* were the two most important Houses in the Metropolis. By 1600 there were about 12 public and private playhouses in London, supporting 200 actors.

Most of these were on the “Surrey side” of the Thames, to escape the malignant persecution of the City Corporation, who were gloomily Puritanic.

The theatres were owned by companies, upon the joint-stock principle,—the proprietors being nearly always the actors and playwrights. To them, also, belonged the greater part of the “properties,” though these were frequently supplied, as now, by professional *costumiers*.

DESCRIPTION OF THE EARLY ENGLISH THEATRE.

Usually built of wood,—octagon,—no roof, excepting a thatch over the stage. The Boxes, or “rooms,” occupied much the same position as now;—the pit or “yard” was occupied by the “groundlings,” mostly standing;—and the stage accommodated, sitting on stools or on the rush-strewn floor, the exquisites of the period, who amused themselves, during the progress of the piece, by smoking, “chaffing” the groundlings, and criticising, aloud, the play.

The stage had no moveable scenery; but there were “*traverses*” or screens, behind which the actors could veil their “exits and their entrances,”—and, besides the drop-scene, (which opened perpendicularly, in the centre), smaller curtains were sometimes employed to divide the stage into separate apartments. To obviate the want of painted scenery, the *locality* of each scene was indicated by the exhibition of a placard bearing the name of the town, &c., while the introduction of a throne, bed, &c., indicated that the stage was, *pro tem.*, a palace, bed-chamber, &c.

The absence of scenery had two good effects:—

1. It made the playwright describe everything needing description in words,—hence the splendid pictures of natural and artificial objects and scenery which they display.

2. It compelled the actor to depend entirely upon his acting for effect,—hence the drama was then better played than now.

At the back of the stage stood a high species of scaffold, which served as the retreat of eaves-droppers, a gallery, a city-wall, or any other elevated position.

The orchestra were located in a gallery over the stage.

There were no female actors,—their parts being taken by boys, until after the Restoration.

The costumes were always those of the day,—whatever country or age the drama in course of action might represent.

The performances usually commenced at 3 p.m., and were heralded by three trumpet-blasts, and the hoisting of a flag, which remained up during the whole course of the entertainment.

The cost of admission was low.

Proceedings began by a figure in a long black cloak reciting the Prologue. The Chorus generally took a share in the play. At the end, and sometimes at intervals

throughout the performance, the clown amused the assembly with a "jig,"—consisting of the recitation of doggerel rhymes, containing sarcastic allusion to contemporary events, accompanied by piping and grotesque dancing. Finally, the actors knelt in front of the stage, and prayed for the Queen!

Stephen Hawes (fl. 1509),—*Poet*.

Chief Work.—*The Pass Tyme of Pleasure*,—a long, somewhat tedious, allegory; but the only truly poetic invention of his time.

Robert Henryson (d. circ. 1500),—*Poet*,—Monk of Dunfermline.

Chief Works.—*The Testament of Faire Cresseide*, an imitation of Chaucer's "*Troilus and Cresseide*,"—*Robin and Makyne*, a graceful pastoral.

Alex. Barclay (d. 1552),—*Poetical Translator*.

Work.—Translation of Sebastian Brandt's *Narrenschiff* (= *Ship of Fools*),—a satire on the whims of mankind.

Barclay's work is in clear, idiomatic English.

Wm. Dunbar (1460-1520),—*Poet*.—Educated at St. Andrew's,—entered the Franciscan order,—employed on several embassies by Jas. IV., who pensioned him, but disappointed him of a benefice.

Chief Works.—*The Dance of the Seven Deadly Sins*, a fantastic and powerful allegory:—*The Thistle and the Rose*, to celebrate the marriage of James with the Princess Margaret of England:—*The Golden Terge* (= shield).

He possessed a powerful and original genius: Scott regards him as Scotland's greatest poet.

Gawin Douglas (1474-1522),—*Original Poet, and Translator*.—Son of Earl of Angus,—became Bishop of Dunkeld,—driven by political faction into England, and well received by Henry VIII.,—died in London of the plague.

Chief Works.—*The Palace of Honour*.

Translation of the Æneid, into Scotch verse (the earliest translation of a classic),—faithful and spirited.

He wrote voluminous poetical works, which greatly improved and enriched the Scotch dialect, and in which, and his translation, there is a larger proportion of Latin and French words than in contemporary English literature.

John Skelton (†1475-1529).—*Poet*,—a “rhyming Rabelais.”—Educated, probably, at Oxford,—Rector of Diss, Norfolk,—a fine classic.

Chief Works.—Serious and Satiric Poems. The best of the latter are *The Booke of Colin Clout*:—*Why Come ye not to Court?*—*The Bouge of Court*,—all three aimed against Wolsey.

The Tunning of Elinour Rummig,—describing the irresistible charms of the ales brewed by Elinour, who is an inn-keeper.

The Boke of the Sparrow,—a serio-comic dirge on a favourite sparrow belonging to a young nun.

His serious writings, many of them allegorical, are stiff, pedantic, and replete with pompous ethical declamation; but the English is clear and forcible.

His comic, satirical pieces are unsurpassed for their mingled boldness, quaintness, bitterness, coarseness, and learning.

They are written in short-lined, rhymed doggerel.

His language is a strange medley of the familiar speech of the common people, and classic pedantry.

He attacked, principally, Wolsey, the Scotch, and Roman Catholic superstitions and abuses.

Sir David Lyndsay “of the Mount” (1490-1557).—*Poet*.—Lyon King-at-Arms,—intimate of Jas. V., who employed him on many commercial embassies.—M.P.,—great friend of Knox, and opponent of Romanist clergy, his writings being asserted to have aided the Reformation.

Chief Works.—*The Three Estates*, a satire on King, Lords, and Clergy:—*The History of Squire Meldrum*, “one of the last of the old metrical romances.”

His works are mediocre, and tedious, and his language more crabbed than that of any of his contemporaries.

John Bale (1495-1563),—*Dramatist, Historian, and Theologian.*—Bishop of Ossory.

Chief Works:—

DRAMAS.—*Moralities and Interludes*, written in support of the Reformed faith. He was one of the founders of our drama, being one of the first to extract materials from the old Chronicles, which he worked up, with other matter, in the form of Plays, occupying an intermediate position between the Morality and the regular Historical Drama.

Kynge Johan (=John), is the best of these.

THEOLOGICAL.—*Treatises in favour of Protestantism.*

HISTORICAL.—*Account of the Most Illustrious Writers of Great Britain*, from Japhet to his own times!—in Latin,—full of myths.

Chronicles of the Death of Sir Jno. Oldcastle, Lord Cobham, and Anne Ascue,—full of touching sympathy.

Sir Rd. Maitland (1496-1586),—*Poet.*—Lawyer,—Lord Privy Seal under Queen Mary,—father of the celebrated Maitland of Lethington.

Works.—*Poems*,—graceful and in good taste.

Best known as a Collector of Poems.

Sir Thos. Wyatt (1503-1541),—*Poet.*—Statesman, and wit,—favourite of Hy. VIII., who employed him on various embassies,—cherished secret love for Anne Boleyn,—died in France of fever.

Works.—*Poems*,—resembling Surrey's in style, but less elegant and melodious.

Geo. Buchanan (1506-1582),—*Poet and Historian.*—Educated at St. Andrew's and Paris,—Professor of St. Barbe,—tutor to Lord Cassilis,—imprisoned by Beaton for heresy, in consequence of having attacked the monks,—escaped to the Continent,—taught Latin at Bordeaux, Coimbra, and Paris,—Principal of St. Leonard's College, St. Andrews,—finally, tutor to James VI., who conferred several State posts upon him,—quarrelled with James, and died in retirement.

Chief Works:—

POEMS.—*Version of the Psalms*,—in purest and most elegant Latin, and displaying great imagination and taste.

Somnium;—*Franciscanus*,—two Latin satires against the monks.

Chamæleon,—a satire on the Scotch dialect, against Secretary Maitland.

HISTORICAL.—*History of Scotland*, or "*Rerum Scotticarum Historia*,"—in Latin,—inaccurate, and impartial; but possessing every charm of style.

James V. of Scotland (1511-1542),—*Poet*.

Works.—Miscellaneous Poems,—mostly comic in character, and extremely spirited and racy.

The Gaberlunzie (=Beggars) *Mon*.

Henry Howard, Earl of Surrey (1516-1547),—*Poet and Translator*.—A gallant cavalier, and one of the chief ornaments of Hy. VIII.'s Court. He was, however, of a rash disposition, and his enemies, the Seymours, made use of this failing to work his ruin.

Henry, by Hertford's instigation, removed him from the governorship of Calais, and Surrey gave vent to loud menaces against his enemies. These were reported to the King with due exaggeration, and a representation that he schemed marrying the Princess Mary, and seizing the throne at Henry's death. The King, always jealous of great nobles, and who regarded Surrey and his father as threatening to be very formidable after his decease, listened eagerly, and caused father and son to be sent to the Tower on a charge of treason.

The charge urged against Surrey, on his trial, was, that he had quartered with his own the arms of Edward the Confessor. Although he proved that those insignia had been granted his family by Rd. II., he was condemned, and beheaded.

Though morally innocent, he was, undoubtedly, guilty, according to the monstrous construction of treason by Henry's statutes.

Chief Works.—Sonnets,—*the earliest in the language*,—founded on Italian models. *Translation of Æneid, Books II. and IV.*,—in *Blank verse*, borrowed from Italian,—*the earliest specimen of that metre in the language*. Versions of some of the *Psalms*,—executed with Wyatt. Poems of various kinds,—many preserved in *Tottel's Miscellany*.

Surrey was not only the introducer of Blank Verse, and the Sonnet, but was the first who refined and polished the language of poetry, paying much attention to correct accentuation. He was the "first English classical poet." His works are marvels of ease, grace, and harmony.

By the efforts of Surrey and Wyatt, the style of Chaucer and the old poets fell into disrepute.

Nicholas Grimoald (1520-1563),—Poet and Translator.—A learned lecturer at Oxford.

Works:—

POEMS,—some of which are in *Tottel's Miscellany*.

TRANSLATIONS,—of several Greek and Latin Classics.

Grimoald was the second to adopt blank verse.

Thomas Churchyard (1520-1604),—Poet and Dramatist.—Served as a soldier under Hy. VIII., Ed. VI., Mary, and Elizabeth,—led a life of vicissitudes, displaying, nevertheless, high religious enthusiasm.

Works.—Most voluminous,—some original, some written in conjunction with other authors, e.g. he aided in the *Mirror*.

Rd. Edwards (1523-1566),—Poet and Dramatist.—Master of the singing boys of the Chapel Royal, under Elizabeth.

Chief Works:—

POEMS.—The best are found in the *P. of Dainty Devices*: of these *Amantium Iræ* is one of the prettiest morsels in the language.

DRAMATIC.—Masques, and other Court entertainments.

Thomas Tusser (1527-1580),—Poet.—Born in Essex,—educated at Cambridge,—spent four years at Court,—settled as farmer in Essex,—abandoned agriculture for singing and poetry,—died poor, in London.

Work.—*A Hundreth Goode Pointes of Husbandrie*,—the earliest didactic poem in the language,—giving, in simple, but elegant, and often forcible, language, rules for farming, and rustic operations generally.

It was afterwards enlarged by others, and published as *Five Hundred Points of Good Husbandrie, united to as many of Good Huswiferie*.

Geo. Turberville (1530-1594),—Poet.

Works.—Poems,—mostly amatory, eulogistic, and epitaphic.

Was fond of employing a modification of the ballad stanza.

John Harrington (1534-1582),—Poet.—Imprisoned by Queen Mary for corresponding with Elizabeth.

Works.—Poems,—published in the *Nugæ Antiquæ*.

John Heywood (d. 1556),—Dramatist.—Strict Romanist.

Works.—*Interludes*, of which he was the most prolific author under Hy. VIII., at whose Court he seems, though a man of learning, to have been regarded as a kind of jester.

Thomas Sackville, Lord Buckhurst, and then Earl of Dorset (1536-1608),—Poet and Dramatist.—Educated at Oxford and Cambridge,—Ambassador to Holland,—Chancellor of Oxford University,—Lord High Treasurer.

Works:—

POEM.—Portion of *The Mirrour of Magistrates*, (i.e. Rulers,) consisting of the *Induction* (= *Introduction*), and *The Complaint of Henry, Duke of Buckingham*.

The *Mirrour of Magistrates* is the most important poem between Chaucer and Spenser, whose schools it unites.

It is in seven-lined stanzas.

It was planned by Sackville, in 1557, and was intended to narrate, for the edification of rulers generally, the histories of all great, unfortunate Englishmen, from the Conquest to the end of the 15th century.

Sackville wrote only the parts before mentioned; the remaining sketches which appeared in the first edition, 1559, were by Churchyard, Phaer, Rd. Baldwyne, a clergyman, and Geo. Ferrers, a learned lawyer.

The works were further enlarged,—in 1587 by John Higgins, a clergyman, and in 1610 by Rd. Niccols, a poet.

It was a very popular book, till superseded by *Albion's England*, and spread a knowledge of their history amongst the people, who had, hitherto, lived in supreme ignorance of their country's annals.

The portion of the *Mirrour* written by Dorset is incomparably superior to the rest of the work.

He displays vivid and lofty imagination, and powerful descriptive talent; but he is often monotonous, and a gloomy melancholy pervades his lines,—owing, perhaps,

to the season, Mary's reign, when he wrote, or to a desire to assimilate the tone to the character of his theme.

The plan of the *Induction* is striking and Dante-like. The poet is conducted by Sorrow into the Infernal Regions, where the shades of the illustrious victims of misfortune pass before him in procession.

The *Complaint* narrates the greatness and tragic end of the Buckingham executed by Rd. III.

Spenser and Shakespeare seem to have been indebted to this Poem.

DRAMATICAL.—*Gorboduc*, Acts IV. and V.

Geo. Gascoigne (1537-1577),—*Poet, Dramatist, Critic*.—Son of Sir Jno. Gascoigne,—disinherited for profligacy,—studied at Gray's Inn,—served in Holland under Orange, who made him captain,—returned to England, and attached himself to Elizabeth's Court as writer of masques, and other entertainments.

Chief Works :—

POEMS.—*The Steel Glass*,—a witty satire on the follies of the age,—in blank verse. The earliest genuine satire in the language.

The Fruits of War,—commemorating his campaigning adventures.

DRAMATIC.—Numerous original and translated Plays.

His works have a high moral tone.

CRITICAL.—*Notes of Instruction* concerning the making of verse in English,—only 10 pages in extent; but full of just canons of taste.

The earliest specimen of criticism in the language.

Wm. Hunnis (fl. 1550),—*Poet*.—One of the gentlemen of the Chapel Royal, under Elizabeth.

Works.—Poems,—moral and religious ;—and light pieces in the *P. of Dainty Devices*.

Sir Walter Raleigh (1552-1618),—*Poet and Historian*.—Born at Budleigh, Devon., of good family,—educated at Oxford,—at seventeen a volunteer in France on the Huguenot side,—served in the Netherlands,—engaged in Humphrey Gilbert's unsuccessful scheme of colonizing N. America,—distinguished himself greatly in Ireland against the rebels,—sent home with despatches, and gained Elizabeth's notice by laying his costly cloak over a mud-

puddle in the Queen's path,—rose rapidly in favour, and became one of the most elegant of her courtiers,—settled Virginia,—commanded a volunteer squadron of the fleet against the Armada,—fell into disgrace, and was imprisoned for an intrigue with one of Elizabeth's maids-of-honour, daughter of Sir Nicholas Throgmorton, whom he afterwards married,—released,—took part in the discovery of Guiana and the attack on Cadiz. At James's accession his good fortune ceased, owing to Cecil's enmity,—he was accused of being concerned in the *Main Plot*,—and indicted for attempting to excite sedition, to induce foreign enemies to invade the kingdom, and to depose James in favour of Arabella Stuart, and for publishing a book impugning James's title to the throne. The prosecution was conducted by Sir Ed. Coke, who scurrilously abused Raleigh. The only evidence against him was that of Cobham, an alleged accomplice, who was not present at the trial, and who had retracted his depositions. Raleigh was, however, found guilty, and sentenced to be executed, but was reprieved and sent to the Tower, where he remained 12 years. Being released, but without a pardon, by the influence of Villiers, who was heavily bribed, he obtained permission from James, who was then sadly in need of money, to fit out an expedition for working a gold mine which Raleigh declared he had formerly discovered in Guiana. He sailed with 14 ships,—meanwhile James treacherously gave information of the project to the ambassador of Spain, which country had established a colony in Guiana,—the Spaniards were consequently on the alert, and attacked the English near St. Thomas, in the neighbourhood of which Raleigh asserted the mine to be. They were beaten and the town taken; but his forces were so reduced that Raleigh was compelled to sail homewards without accomplishing his purpose. Meanwhile the Spanish Court complained bitterly of the alleged outrage on the national flag, and James, just then eager for Prince Charles's marriage with the Infanta, and consequently anxious to conciliate Spain, issued a proclamation, denouncing Raleigh. The latter, on his return, started to London to justify himself with James, and was met by Sir Lewis Stuckley, a kinsman, who had been sent to convey him under *surveillance* to London. Chances of escape offered on the journey, but he neglected them, being confident of his ability to meet the

charges against him. As he neared London, however, alarming reports reached him, which led him to regret that he had not escaped. To gain time, with a hope of other chances of flight occurring, he bribed Manoury, a French empiric, one of his custodians, to make him ill, and thus compel a halt. The quack administered emetics; but these not producing sufficiently alarming symptoms, Raleigh induced him to compound an ointment, which being applied to his face, arms, and breast, covered them with purple spots. He pretended, also, to be unable to eat, (though he was privately well supplied by the Frenchman). The physicians declared he was stricken mortally with the plague, and his scheme seemed to promise success, when the quack betrayed him to Stuckley, who, thereupon, hurried him to London. On arriving there he was allowed to reside in his own house. Having formed a plan of escape by water to the Continent, Stuckley, who was still his keeper, was, apparently, won over to complicity in the flight, by means of a heavy bribe. But he took effectual measures to thwart the scheme, and when Gravesend was reached, Raleigh discovered that he was betrayed. He then returned to London, and was committed to close custody in the Tower. Being brought before the King's Bench, he pleaded that James's release amounted virtually to a pardon. But the Court decided against him, and ordered the old sentence to be carried out. His conduct on the scaffold was that of a Christian hero.

Raleigh is one of the loftiest characters of his age; but, unfortunately, he had in him too much of the adventurer, which frequently involved him in petty artifices and meannesses which greatly mar his perfections.

(Stuckley met with a righteous retribution. Raleigh denounced at the block his kinsman's treachery, and he became an object of loathing to all. Receiving £500 "blood-money" for his *espionage*, he entertained himself by "sweating" the gold,—was discovered,—stripped of his Vice-Admiralship,—and with difficulty obtained a pardon by resigning all his property. He then wandered about, a common mendicant, and died mad in that condition.)

Chief Works:—

POEMS.—Various amatory, lyric, and moral pieces, and sonnets. The best known are

"If that the world and love were young," (in

England's Helicon),—*The Soul's Errand*, (attributed also to Sylvester, or Pembroke),—and a touching little piece written the night before his death, and commencing, "*Even such is Time*,"—and Epitaph on Sidney.

His Poems are natural, sweet, and flowing. Spenser calls him "the summer's nightingale," and "the shepherd of the ocean."

PROSE.—*History of the World*, &c.,—not within the Period.

Edmund Spenser (1553-1599),—*Poet and Prose Writer*.—Born in London,—educated, as sizar, at Camb., where he acquired the friendship of Gabriel Harvey, a learned pedant, whose great design was to govern English rhythm by the classic rules of quantity,—on leaving college became private tutor in the N.,—induced to return to London, by Harvey, who introduced him to Sidney, at whose seat, Penshurst, Kent, he spent several happy years. Sidney introduced him to Leicester, and Leicester to Elizabeth. Owing, however, to the enmity of Burleigh to Spenser's patrons, the poet found little but vexation and disappointment at Court. At length he was appointed to attend Lord Grey to Ireland, as Secretary, and, after the attainder of Desmond, received a grant of 3,000 acres of that nobleman's forfeited estates, in County Cork,—taking up his abode at Kilcolman Castle, (since the grant stipulated that he should reside on the property), where he brought home his bride. Here he finished Bks. I.-III. of the *Faerie Queene*, and read them to Raleigh, by whose advice he visited London to publish them. On their appearance, Elizabeth, to whom they were dedicated, granted him £50 pension, which was withheld by Burleigh, until Spenser reminded the Queen of it. He revisited London to publish Bks. IV.-VI. of his great poem.

When Tyrone's Rebellion broke out, the rebels attacked and burned Kilcolman Castle: Spenser fled, leaving all his property behind, as well as a dear 'new-born' babe that perished in the flames. Reaching London, he and his wife took a poor lodging, where, three months after his arrival in England, he died, beggared and broken-hearted. Essex defrayed the expenses of his funeral, which was attended by a galaxy of rank and genius,

many of his brother-poets throwing elegies into the grave, in Westminster Abbey, near Chaucer's.

Chief Works:—

POEMS.—*The Shepheard's Calendar, or Poet's Year*, pub. 1579,—12 charming Pastorals, one for each month in the year,—written in the style of Virgil's *Bucolics*; but, unlike most English pastorals, the scenery and characters are from nature, not classical.

The Tears of the Muses, 1591.

Mother Hubbard's Tale, or Prosopopoia, 1591,—a poetical Satire.

Daphnida, 1592,—elegy on Lady Howard.

Colin Clout's Come Home again, 1595.

Astrophel, 1595,—elegy on Sidney.

Amoretti, 1595,—89 sonnets to his bride, before marriage.

Epithalamium, 1595,—in celebration of his own marriage.—*Hallam* says there is "no other nuptial song, ancient or modern, of equal beauty. It is an intoxication of ecstasy, ardent, noble, and pure."

Prothalamium, 1596.

Hymnes on Love, and Beautie: and on Heavenly Love, and Heavenly Beautie, 1596.

THE FAËRIE QUEENE,—commenced *circ.* 1580.

Books I., II., III., 1590.

" IV., V., VI., finished by 1593, published 1596.

PROSE.—*View of the State of Ireland*, (posthumous), recommending the redressing of all real Irish grievances, together with a firm hand in ruling.

Spenser is the greatest poet between Chaucer and Shakespeare. Campbell calls him the "Rubens of English poetry."

The appearance of such a work as his masterpiece, *The Faërie Queene*, was the natural outcome of "a period combining a scholar-like imitation of antiquity and of foreign contemporary literature, principally that of Italy, with the force, freshness, and originality of the dawn of letters in England."

The Faërie Queene is a Gothic, chivalric, and allegorical Romance. The title is not just: it should rather be the

Queen of Chivalrie, since *Gloriana* rules over a domain of Chivalry,—not Fairyland.

The metre of the poem is based on the Italian *ottavina*, being written in stanzas of eight ten-syllabled lines, but having, unlike its model, a twelve-syllabled line, (an Alexandrine), to end the verse.

This 'Spenserian stanza' has found many imitators,—e.g. Shenstone, Beattie, Thomson, and Byron.

Plan of the Work.—To consist of twelve books, each containing the adventures of a Knight or Knights, typifying some moral virtue, and divided into twelve cantos. Of the twelve books, only six were finished. There is a tradition that the other six were completed,—entrusted, for conveyance to England for publication, to a servant,—and lost at sea. But this is unsupported by any evidence, and is disproved by the fact that a fragment of a seventh book is extant. It would seem that the troubles of the latter period of his life precluded poetic composition. The last three books he wrote, however, show such a terrible falling off in quality, that it is a matter for small regret that the poem should be incomplete.

Plot of the Poem.—Prince Arthur, the heroic personification of perfect virtue, seeing, in a vision, the Faërie Queene, *Gloriana*, is deeply enamoured of her, and sets out to seek her in Fairyland. On his arrival he finds her holding a twelve days' festival. At her Court is a beautiful lady, whose hand is sought by twelve distinguished Knights. To decide their conflicting claims each undertakes an adventure, which is made the subject of one book of the Poem,—all the personages introduced being allegorical of some moral virtue.

Book I.—The Adventures of the *Red Cross Knight*, (i.e. the Christian), who, by the aid of *Una*, (Truth), finally triumphs over *Archimago*, (Hypocrisy), *Duessa*, (Heresy), *Orgoglio*, (Antichrist), and the *Dragon*, (Satan).

This is the finest of the six books, and the only one in which the allegory is clear.

Book II.—The Adventures of *Sir Guyon*, (Temperance).

This book contains splendid descriptions of natural scenery.

Book III.—The Adventures of the female Knight, *Briomartia*, (Chastity).

In this book the huntress, Belphebe, and Amoret, two of Spenser's most exquisite female creations, appear.

Book IV.—The Adventures of *Cambell* and *Triamond*,—typifying Friendship.

This book is remarkable for wealth of imagery.

Book V.—The Adventures of *Artegall*, (Justice).

This and the next book abound in moral sentiment.

Book VI.—The Adventures of *Sir Calidore*, (Courtesy).

Of **Book VII.**, which was to contain the legend of *Constance*, two cantos on *Mutability* exist.

The personages of the Poem have, in many instances, a double allegorical significance,—typifying primarily, moral qualities, and secondarily, existing things and living characters, thus :—

Gloriana, *Britomartis*, and *Cynthia* all represent *Queen Elizabeth*.

The *Red Cross Knight* represents the *Church of England*.

Duessa represents the *Church of Rome*, and *Mary of Scots*.

Prince Arthur represents the *Earl of Leicester*.

Artegall represents *Lord Grey*.

Sir Calidore represents *Sidney*.

The outline of the *Faërie Queene* is taken from chivalric legends,—the moral sentiments are founded upon Platonism and Christianity,—and the form and colour of the language and the versification are from the Italian.

Spenser's excellencies are richness of imagination,—intense appreciation of the Beautiful, and unrivalled power in depicting it,—splendour and vigour of language, with a happy harmony between style and subject,—and almost oppressive sweetness of versification.

His faults are—

1. Too great fondness for archaic words and forms. This is owing, probably, to the influence of Chaucer, whom he acknowledges as his master. Though carried by Spenser to excess, it must, nevertheless, be allowed that this obsolete style suits the subject, and, like the moss and ivy on some majestic building, covers the fabric of the poem with romantic and venerable associations.

2. Absence of power to analyze and delineate character.

3. Want of unity in the Plan. Arthur, the hero, scarcely appears, and each Book is, really, a separate Poem.

4. Monotony of incident,—the adventures being merely a succession of combats between knight and knight, or knight and monster, with a foregone result.

5. The uninteresting character of the allegory, owing to its unreality, together with its general darkness.

Fortunately, however, it is possible to read the Poem with interest without at all regarding the allegory. This is the course pursued by the majority of readers, who follow the adventures as those of real personages.

6. The liberties he takes with words.

The chief of these are

1. He alters the pronunciation of words by changing the spelling :—

Laid is spelled *lad* to rhyme with *had*.

Retreat is spelled *retrate* to rhyme with *gate*.

Grass is spelled *gras* to rhyme with *has*.

2. The accent of words is changed to suit the rhythm.

3, and most remarkable. By altering the orthography of words, he constantly makes the spelling of the rhymes uniform in each verse.

The following are sets of rhymes found, respectively, in single stanzas, and illustrating this peculiarity :—

(1.) *Twoo, too, doo.*

(2.) *Spright, sight, quight.*

(3.) *Earne (=yearn), learne, stearne.*

(4.) *Accurst, thirst, burst, nurst.*

John Lyly, "the Euphuist," (1533-1600),—*Poet, Dramatist, and Prose Tale Writer*.—Educated at Oxford,—favourite with Elizabeth.

Works :—

POEMS.—Mostly lyric,—elegant and musical.

DRAMAS.—*Endymion* :—*Sappho and Phaon* :—*Alexander and Campaspe*,—all classical.

Various Court entertainments.

TALE.—*Euphues*, in two parts :—

1. *Euphues, the Anatomie of Wit.*

2. *Euphues his England.*

It purports to be the history of a Greek, who in Part I. is supposed to be at Naples, and in II. in England.

The story is only a peg on which to exhibit the author's peculiar style,—called *Euphuism*, from the title of his work.

His style consisted in fondness for alliteration, (often merely *literal*), antithesis, quaintness and exaggeration of conceits and expressions, and remote analogies. It became the rage at Court, in society generally, and in literature. Shakespeare ridiculed it, *e.g.* in *Love's Labour Lost*, and thus destroyed it; yet he occasionally is betrayed into it, *e.g.* in *Hamlet*. The Euphuists, with all their blemishes, did great service in introducing new words and fresh combinations. Lyly's own works contain profound and wise thoughts, and are richly imaginative.

Anthony Munday (1553-1633),—*Dramatist.*—A draper of London,—Meres calls him "the best plotter" amongst the comedians of the time.

Works.—14 Dramas, wholly or partially by him.

Chief of this Period.—*Valentine and Orson*:—*Sir John Oldcastle*:—*Robert, Earl of Huntingdon's Downfall*:—*Robert, Earl of Huntingdon's Death*.

Sir Philip Sidney (1554-1586),—*Poet, Prose Tale Writer, and Critic.*—Educated at Oxford and Camb.,—travelled,—became the brightest ornament of Elizabeth's Court,—lived for some time in retirement at the seat of his brother-in-law, at Wilton,—candidate for the Crown of Poland; but forbidden by Elizabeth to accept it,—mortally wounded at Zutphen, dying soon after. While being carried off the field, water was brought him, but, seeing the eyes of another sufferer fixed eagerly on the vessel, he ordered it to be given to him, remarking, "Thy necessity is greater than mine."

He was elegant, refined, of lofty honour, and true Christian virtue,—the noblest man of his age.

Works:—

POEMS.—Sonnets, and other minor pieces,—cold, though polished.

PROSE.—*The Countess of Pembroke's Arcadia*,—a long chivalric and pastoral Prose Romance, interspersed with verses.

It abounds in exquisite fancy, and beautiful pictures of scenery; but is tedious.

Shakespeare has imitated its scenes, and derived from it the outlines of some of his finest

female characters: Shirley, Beaumont, and Fletcher, also, are indebted to it.

Defence of Poësie,—a reply to objections brought against poetry.

It is written in a clear, nervous style, (the best English prose that had hitherto appeared),—contains correct reasoning and apt illustrations,—and is the earliest specimen of *good criticism* in the language.

His style is very Euphuistic.

Sidney was a warm patron of literary men.

Sir Fulke Greville, Lord Brooke (1554-1628),—*Poet, Dramatist, and Biographer*.—Great favourite of Elizabeth,—intimate friend of Sidney,—under James I. he was made a Baron and Privy Councillor, and became, successively, Under-Treasurer, and Chancellor of the Exchequer,—stabbed by a servant, whom he had rebuked for insolence.

Chief Works:—

POEMS.—*Treatises on Human Learning, Monarchy, Religion, and Wars:—Inquisition (= Enquiry) upon Fame and Fortune*, (all posthumous and philosophical),—deeply reflective and learned; but obscure in style, and awkward in metrical treatment.

DRAMAS.—*Alaham:—Mustapha*,—tragedies on classic model.

Southey thinks Dryden took Brooke as his model in tragedy.

PROSE.—*Life of Sir Philip Sidney*.

Thomas Lodge (1556-1625),—*Poet, Dramatist, Prose Romance Writer, and Essayist*.—A physician.

Chief Works:—

POEMS.—Miscellaneous,—ten appear in *England's Helicon*.

DRAMAS.—Numerous. The best is *The Wounds of Civil War, lively set forth in the True Tragedies of Marius and Sylla*.

His plays show a bold imagination, and great skill in delineating character.

PROSE.—*Rosolynde: Euphues Golden Legacie*,—a Romance, from which Shakespeare obtained the plot and incidents of *As you like it*.

A Looking-Glass for London and England, a defence of the stage against the Puritans, written in conjunction with Greene.

The '*Helicon*' contains pieces, mostly amatory, by Sidney, Raleigh, Marlowe, Breton, Lodge, Greene, Shakespeare, &c.

Geo. Chapman (1557-1634),—*Dramatist and Translator*.

DRAMATIC.—Comedies, of little value.

TRANSLATION of Homer,—in fourteen-syllable verse.

It is more spirited and true to the original than any version extant. It abounds in beautiful Homer-like compound epithets.

Tottel's Miscellany, pub. 1557.—The first collection of English poetry by different authors,—Surrey, Wyatt, Grimoald, Sir Francis Bryan, (nephew of Berners), Viscount Rochefort, and Lord Vaux, (Captain of Jersey, under Hy. VIII.)

Phaer (flourished circ. 1558),—*Translator and Original Poet*.

Works.—*Translation of Æneid*, Books I.-IX., inclusive. Additions to the *Mirror for Magistrates*.

Thomas Nash (1558-1601),—*Dramatist and Satirical Pamphleteer*.—A Cambridge man of considerable learning and parts; but of dissolute life.

Chief Works:—

DRAMAS.—Aided in composition of *Summer's Last Will and Testament*, and

The Isle of Dogs,—a satirical comedy, which led to his imprisonment for some time.

PROSE.—Satirical and abusive pamphlets, written chiefly for cash. Gabriel Harvey, and Martin Marprelate were his favourite butts.

Pierce Penniless his Supplication to the Devil,—a confession of his moral delinquencies.

Wm. Warner (1558-1609),—*Poet*.—An attorney.

Work.—*Albion's England*,—a history, in detached tales, of England, from the Deluge to James I. !—written in fourteen-syllabled lines.

Supplanted the *Mirror*, and was long popular. The tales are generally spirited; but often immoral in tone.

Nicholas Breton (1558-1624),—*Post.*

Works.—Miscellaneous Poems,—some of them included in *England's Helicon*.

Robert Greene (1560-1592),—*Dramatist, Adapter of Tales, and Pamphleteer.*—A Cambridge man, of Nash's stamp,—died of a "shoeing-horn" of pickled fish, and Rhenish wine, at a debauch.

Chief Works:—

DRAMAS.—The best, *Orlando Furioso*, tragedy; *Friar Bacon*, comedy; and *George-a-Green*, the subject being taken from an old English legend. "Succeeds in that florid and gay style which Shakespeare frequently gives to his princes and courtiers."

PROSE.—*Tales*,—amplified from the Italian. Pamphlets,—satirical and sketchy, the latter frequently describing the low life of London. *A Groatworth of Wit bought with a Million of Repentance*,—a touching confession of his own sins, and warning to others to avoid them,—very popular. Both he and Nash *spitefully* abuse Shakespeare.

Thos. Watson (1560-1592),—*Post.*

Works.—Beautiful *Sonnets*.

Robert Southwell (1560-1595),—*Poet and Prose Writer.*—Educated at Douay,—became a Jesuit, and missionary in England,—seized for disobeying the law forbidding Romanist priests to remain in the country,—executed after two years' imprisonment.

Chief Works:—

POEMS.—Miscellaneous,—possessing a tone of sadness and religious resignation,—*The Burning Babe* is the best known.

His poems display simplicity and elegance of sentiment, clearness and purity of language, and ease and melody of versification. He much resembles Goldsmith.

PROSE.—*The Triumph over Death*,—an elegy and eulogy on Lady Sackville.

Sir John Harrington (1561-1612),—*Post, and Translator.*

Chief Works.—*Translation of Ariosto's Orlando Furioso.*
Epigrams.

Arthur Brooke (fl. 1562),—*Poetical paraphrast.*

Work.—*The Tragical History of Romeus and Juliet*,—a free metrical paraphrase of *Bandello*, an Italian novel. Brooke's work was the basis of Shakespeare's *Romeo and Juliet*.

Sir Alexander Scott (fl. 1562),—*Poet.*—"The Scotch Anacreon."

Works.—Exquisite amatory Poems.

Sternhold and Hopkins's Version of the Psalms, (the First Metrical Version), was made under Ed. VI.; but not published till 1562. Most of their Psalms are the most vulgar bathos; but some of them catch the spirit of the original, and are, consequently, really sublime.

Sternhold was Groom of the Robes under Hy. VIII. and Ed. VI., and d. 1549. He versified 51 of the Psalms: the rest were paraphrased by Hopkins, Marot, and Whittingham.

Geo. Peele (d. 1590),—*Poet and Dramatist.*—Oxford man,—Fellow-actor, and shareholder, in Blackfriars, with Shakespeare.

Chief Works:—

POEM.—*Old Wives' Tale*, supposed to have given Milton the outline of *Comus*.

DRAMAS.—*Edward I.: David and Bethsabe (= Bathsheba):—Absalom.*

His plays show elegant fancy and language, and smooth versification.

His *Ed. I.* is the first example of the historical drama, of which Shakespeare is the greatest writer.

Samuel Daniel (1562-1619),—*Poet, Dramatist, and Historian.*—"The well-languaged,"—born near Taunton,—educated at Oxford,—tutor to the celebrated Countess of Pembroke,—made Master of the Revels to Elizabeth,—Poet-Laureate for a short time; but dispossessed by Jonson,—spent his last years in farming.

Works during this Period:—

POEMS.—*Musophilus*,—a defence of Learning,—in the form of a dialogue.

Elegies, Epistles, and Songs.

DRAMATIC.—*Masques.*

His chief Poem, *History of the Civil Wars* (i.e. of the Roses), and his great prose work, *History of England*, do not fall within the Period.

All his works are distinguished by elegance, ease, and exquisite clearness of style; but are deficient in depth and energy.

Christopher Marlowe (1563-1593),—*Poet, Dramatist, and Translator.*—Son of a shoemaker,—a Cambridge man,—became actor, (breaking his leg on the stage), and playwright,—a debauchee, and Atheist,—killed in a tavern brawl, with his own dagger, which he had drawn upon a serving-man.

Chief Works :—

DRAMAS.—*Tamburlaine*,—bombastic; but with many powerful passages.

Faustus,—his finest tragedy,—founded on the legend of Faust selling himself to Satan. It is a grand tragedy: the closing scene, where Faust awaits the Evil One, is unsurpassed in its powerful depiction of terror and agonized remorse. *Goethe* acknowledged himself indebted to this play.

The Jew of Malta,—presents in the sordid, cruel, revengeful Barabbas, a highly-finished picture of the hated Jew of that and preceding ages. Barabbas is the prototype of Shakespeare's Shylock.

Edward II.,—the most even of his tragedies. Lamb says, "The death-scene of Marlowe's King moves pity and terror beyond any scene, ancient or modern, with which I am acquainted."

POEMS.—Miscellaneous. One of the most graceful is, "Come, live with me, and be my love," in *England's Helicon*.

TRANSLATIONS,—from *Ovid*, *Lucian*, &c.

Marlowe is the only really great dramatist before Shakespeare, for whom he prepared the way.

He possessed originality of conception, power of diction, character, and a command of lofty and sonorous language, and would, had he lived longer, have proved, even, a formidable rival of Shakespeare.

Joshua Sylvester (1563-1618),—*Poet and Translator.*
—A merchant,—friend of Bishop Hall.

Chief Work—*Translation of The Divine Weeks and Works of Du Bartas*, a contemporary French poet.

Sylvester was called in his time "the silver-tongued," and his translation of "the divine Du Bartas" was immensely popular.

The work is remarkable for the number of compound words it contains. It is written in a peculiarly clear and charming style, and was a favourite of Milton and Dryden.

Michael Drayton (1563-1631),—*Poet.*—Born at Atherstone, Warwickshire, of humble parents,—became a page,—attracted the attention and patronage of the Countess of Bedford, and others of the aristocracy, and was thus enabled to devote himself to literature,—buried in Westminster Abbey.

Chief Works of the Period.—*The Barons' Wars*,—describing the chief events of Ed. II.'s reign,—written in the eight-lined Ariosto stanza.

England's Heroical Epistles,—love-epistles, represented as written by celebrated Englishmen to their lady-loves.

The Muses' Elysium,—nine idyls, or "*Nymphals*," as he calls them.

Nymphidia,—a charming mock-heroic poem, embodying "everything that is most graceful, delicate, quaint, and fantastic in . . . fairy mythology."

His great poem, the *Polyolbion*, is out of the Period.

In Drayton's principal works we see that taste for poetical history that characterised the time, and was evolved into the historical drama.

Drayton possessed a rich fancy and vigorous style; but in his historical works the subject often proves too matter-of-fact for poetic embellishment.

William Shakespeare (1564-1616), *Dramatist, and Poet.*—Born at Stratford-on-Avon, April 23rd (St. George's Day),—son, and eldest child, of John Shakespeare, woolcomber or glover, (who attained a high municipal position, and became High Bailiff of Stratford; but afterwards sank in the world), and Mary Arden, a lady of good family and fair fortune,—educated at the Grammar-school

of his native place,—on leaving school, entered a lawyer's office, or, as others say, helped his father in his business,—at eighteen married Anne Hathaway, a farmer's daughter, eight years older than himself, by whom he had two daughters and a son,—went to London when about twenty-two, either driven by fear of the vengeance of Sir Thomas Lucy, upon whom he had written a lampoon, in consequence of the knight's prosecuting him for poaching in his park, or, as is more likely, fired by the conversation of Burbage, (the great London actor, who habitually visited Stratford, his native place), with a desire to seek his fortune on the stage,—became successively actor, (in which capacity he was “of good account,”) adapter of plays, original dramatist, and theatrical manager, owning the greater part of Blackfriars Theatre, and part of the Globe,—made money, and purchased houses and lands at Stratford, which he yearly visited, and whither he finally retired in 1612.

He left no lineal descendants. His son Hamnet died aged eleven,—his favourite daughter Susanna, married Dr. Hall, of Stratford, and left a daughter, who, though twice married, had no issue,—his other daughter, Judith, married Thomas Quinsy, and had three sons, but they all died childless. His wife died in 1623.

Shakespeare's writings consist of Poems, and 35, 36, or 37 Dramas, most of which were produced during Elizabeth's reign.

Works :—

POEMS.—*Venus and Adonis*, pub. 1593, called by him “the first heir of my invention.” Probably composed at Stratford. Its subject is the passion of the Queen of Love for the disdainful hunter-youth. It is characterized by rich fancy, descriptive power, and melody ; but its passion is too warmly coloured.

The Rape of Lucrece (= *Lucretia*), 1594,—rich in pathos, and moral reflection ; but bearing marks of haste.

The Passionate Pilgrim, 1599, is a collection of poems, published as Shakespeare's ; but only two sonnets, and some lines from *Love's Labour Lost* are his : the remainder is by Marlowe, Raleigh, and Barnfield.

His *Sonnets* do not belong to this Period, not being published till 1609, though some of them must have existed before 1598, for *Meres*, in that year, speaks of his "sugared sonnets among his private friends."

DRAMAS.—

1. *In order of production*, as far as can be ascertained.

<i>Merchant of Venice</i> , <i>Midsummer Night's Dream</i> , <i>All's Well that Ends Well</i> (originally <i>Love's Labour Won</i>), <i>Two Gentlemen of Verona</i> , <i>Comedy of Errors</i> , <i>King John</i> ,	}	Composed previously to 1598, since they are mentioned by <i>Meres</i> in his <i>Palladis Tamia</i> , published in that year.
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It is probable that the *Comedy of Errors* was his first complete, original play, and written 1586; and the *Two Gentlemen of Verona* seems to have been the second; *Love's Labour Lost*, the third; and the *Taming of the Shrew*, the fourth.

Henry VI., Part I., before 1592.

Taming of the Shrew, acted 1593.

Henry VI., Part II., before 1594.

Henry VI., Part III., printed 1595.

Richard II., printed 1597.

Richard III., printed 1597.

Romeo and Juliet, printed 1597.

Love's Labour Lost, printed 1598.

Henry IV., Part I., printed 1598.

Henry IV., Part II., printed 1600.

Henry V., printed 1600.

Titus Andronicus, printed 1600.

Much Ado about Nothing, printed 1600.

As You Like It, entered at Stationers' Hall, 1600.

Merry Wives of Windsor, printed 1602.

Twelfth Night, } acted, 1602.

Othello,

Hamlet, printed 1603.

Measure for Measure, acted 1604.

King Lear, acted 1607.

Troilus and Cressida, acted 1609.

Pericles, printed 1609.

Macbeth, existed 1610.

The Tempest, acted 1611.

Winter's Tale, acted 1611.

Henry VIII., acted 1613, though probably of far earlier date.

Cymbeline, *Timon of Athens*, *Julius Cæsar*, *Antony and Cleopatra*, and *Coriolanus* were, doubtless, written after Shakespeare's retirement; but we have no means of ascertaining their dates.

It is impossible to fix with certainty the dates of the composition of the plays, since it was the practice of the theatrical companies to preserve a monopoly in the plays acted at their houses, by keeping them in MS., and refusing to allow them to be printed. Thus, only eleven of Shakespeare's dramas appeared during his lifetime, and these in a very corrupt form, being probably printed from pirated copies.

The great poet's earliest labours were exercised in arranging, adapting, and improving already existing plays. These efforts are represented by *Hy. VI.*, *Hy. VIII.*, *Pericles*, *Titus Andronicus*, and, in a less degree, in *Hy. V.*, *King John*, and the early cast of *Hamlet*.

Many of his dramas Shakespeare produced hastily, to meet a stage demand, and then repolished, with an evident view to fit them for posthumous criticism. Amongst these improved works are *Love's Labour Lost*, *Hamlet*, and *Romeo and Juliet*.

2. *Classified according to Subject*, with Source whence derived:—

(1). *Tragedies*:—

a. Entirely fictional—

Romeo and Juliet,—Paynter's *Palace of Pleasure*, translated from Boccaccio.

Othello,—Cinthio's *Hecatommithi*.

b. Based on legendary History:—

Hamlet,—The *Chronicle* of Saxo-Græmmaticus, and an older Play.

King Lear,—Holinshed, and an older Drama.

Cymbeline.

(Tragi-Comedy),—Holinshed, and old French romances.

Macbeth,—Holinshed.

Titus Andronicus,—An older Play.

It is doubtful whether *Titus* be Shakespeare's.

Troilus and Cressida,—Chaucer, and the *Recuyell of Oye*.

Timon of Athens,—*Palace of Pleasure*, (and Plutarch and Lucan).

(2). **Comedies:**—

Midsummer Night's Dream,—Chaucer's *Knight's Tale*.

Comedy of Errors,—Plautus,—*Menæchmi*.

Taming of the Shrew,—Old English Play, of same name.

Love's Labour Lost,—Probably French.

Two Gentlemen of Verona,—Spanish and Italian.

Merchant of Venice,—*Gesta Romanorum*, and *Pecorone*.

All's Well that Ends Well,—*Palace of Pleasure*.

Much Ado about Nothing,—*Orlando Furioso*.

As You Like It,—Lodge's *Rosalynde*, and the *Coke's Tale of Gamelyn*.

Merry Wives of Windsor,—Doubtful.

Measure for Measure,—*Hecatommiti*.

Winter's Tale,—Greene's tale, *Dorastus and Fawnia*.

Tempest,—Italian.

Twelfth Night,—A novel of *Bandello*, and *Menæchmi*.

Pericles,—*Gesta Romanorum*.

(It is doubtful whether *Pericles* be Shakespeare's.)

(3). **Purely Historical Plays:**—

a. Roman—

Julius Cæsar,—Plutarch's *Lives*.

Antony and Cleopatra,—do.

Coriolanus,—do.

} Tragedies.

b. English—

King John,—an older Play.

Richard II.,—Fabian, Hall, and Holinshed.

Henry IV., Parts I. and II., } —An old Play, *The Famous*

Henry V., } *Pictures of Henry V.*

Henry VI., Parts I., II., and III.,—Several old Plays,

—*The Contention between the famous Houses of York and Lancaster* being the chief.

Richard III.,—An old Play, and Hall, and Holinshed.

Henry VIII.,—Hall, Holinshed, and Cavendish's *Life of Wolsey*.

The *Midsummer Night's Dream* is, probably, the finest Comedy; the *Merchant of Venice*, the best of the Tragi-Comedies; and *Macbeth*, the grandest Tragedy.

Hallam says,—"The name of Shakespeare is the greatest in our literature: it is the greatest in all literature."

His *distinguishing qualities* are creative power,—profound insight into the human mind,—just philosophy,—

keen observation of the face of Nature and of the actions of men,—range of expression, from the loftiest tragic sublimity down to the broadest comic fun,—and the ability to clothe his marvellous conceptions in language generally suitable, various, forcible, and beautiful.

His *chief* faults are occasional obscurity, and a fondness for verbal conceits and puns (*vide* Gaunt's dying speech in *Richard II.*)

With regard to *Shakespeare's classical attainments*, we have Jonson's dictum that he knew "little Latin and less Greek." Against this assertion has been urged the fact that several of his plays are of classic origin, and that his dramas and poems are studded with allusions to ancient history and mythology. But this proves nothing, for it is well known that he founded his Classical Dramas on *North's Translation of Plutarch's Lives*, and all the rest of his knowledge of Greek and Latin authors may also have been obtained from translations. His acquaintance with *Latin*, however, is proved by the large number of *actual Latin and Latinized words and phrases* to be found in his works. We have no such evidence of his being a Greek scholar; but, had he been so, it is certain that he would not have introduced that language into his dramas. The question then stands thus:—Shakespeare had a good knowledge of Latin; but we do not know whether he was acquainted with Greek, though his having remained at a noted Grammar school sufficiently long to acquire the one language, would lead us to suppose that he could not have been ignorant of the other. Jonson's assertion, then, appears incorrect, which may be explained partly on the ground that he had an inordinate opinion of his own scholarship, and partly on the supposition of a little envy towards his giant rival, and a desire to display his own superiority in at least one point.

The *first edition of Shakespeare's collected plays* was published in 1623, by his friends, Hemings and Condell, and is called the *First Folio*: it contains thirty-five dramas. The *Second Folio* appeared in 1632: it is very inaccurate. The *Third Folio* was published 1644, and contained seven additional plays. The fourth edition dates 1685.

N.B.—In giving an account of the *Plays of Shakespeare strictly within this Period, those produced after 1603 must of course be omitted.*

Jas. VI. of Scotland (1566-1625),—*Political Writer and Poet, Essayist, and Critic.*

Works of the Period :—

POEM.—*Essayes of a Prentice in the Divine Art of Poesie*, with the *Reulis and Cautelis*, (= Cautions), to be pursued and avoided.

PROSE.—*Basilikon Doron*,—directions on government, addressed to his son Henry.

Henry Constable (1568-1604),—*Poet.*

Works :—*Diana*,—a volume of exquisite sonnets.

Spiritual Sonnets.

Sir Henry Wotton (1568-1639),—*Poet and Prose Writer.*—Born at Bocton Hall, Kent,—educated at Winchester and Oxford,—Ambassador to Venice under Jas. I.,—took orders, and died Provost of Eton,—great patron of literature.

Work.—*Reliquiæ Wottonianæ*,—posthumous,—containing some exquisite poems, and several prose pieces, the best being the
Elements of Architecture.

Sir John Dacres (1570-1626),—*Poet and Law Writer.*
—English barrister,—became Chief Justice of Ireland.

Works :—

POEMS.—*Nosce Teipsum*,—a philosophical and religious poem, proving the Soul's immortality,—written in four-lined heroic stanzas, with alternate rhymes.

Deficient in fancy and passion ; but unsurpassed for condensation of thought, and vigour of language, while the versification is extremely melodious.

Orchestra,—a poem on the art of dancing,—gay and sparkling,—written in a peculiar seven-lined stanza, whose perpetual variations of rhythm are well suited to the subject.

PROSE.—*Reports of Law Cases*, (the first published in Ireland), with the best preface ever prefixed to a law-book.

Thomas Middleton (1570-1627),—*Dramatist.*

Works.—Dramas, marked by a wild imagination, and love of the mysterious and supernatural. The best are

The Witch. and *Women beware Women.*

John Donne (1573-1631),—Poet and Theologian.—Born in London, of Roman Catholic family, but embraced Protestantism,—educated at Cambridge,—entered the Church in middle age, but rapidly gained popularity as a preacher,—became Dean of St. Paul's.

Works:—

POEMS.—*Satires* (which he was the first to write in rhyming couplets):—*Elegies*:—*Epigrams*:—*Amatory pieces*:—and *Religious Poems*.

All these are distinguished by learning and vigour; but are marred by harsh metres and conceits,—he being the most outrageous of the “*metaphysical*” or “*fantastic*” poets.

PROSE.—*Sermons*.

Ben Jonson (1574-1637),—Dramatist, Poet, Essayist, and Grammarian.—Born in Westminster,—posthumous son of a clergyman,—entered Westminster School, but was taken thence to aid his step-father in his business of brick-layer,—disliking the employment, ran away, and served as volunteer in the Netherlands,—returned to England, and, at twenty, married, and turned actor and dramatist,—in jail for some time for killing in a duel another actor,—and again temporarily imprisoned for reflections, in *Eastward, Ho!*, on the Scots, which James took personally,—succeeded Daniel as Poet-Laureate,—banished from Court in his later years by the influence of Inigo Jones,—died amidst struggles with poverty and paralysis,—buried upright in Westminster Abbey, his tombstone bearing only the four words,—“O rare Ben Jonson!”

Chief Works of the Period:—

DRAMATIC.—*Comedies.*—*Every Man in His Humour*, 1596.

It was a failure at first; but became a success, owing to changes made in it by the advice of Shakespeare, who himself played one of the characters.

Every Man out of His Humour, 1597.

Classic Tragedy.—*Sejanus*.

In all, he wrote 16 Dramas; most of which belong to the next Period.

Jonson's Comedies are life-like; but the majority of his personages are exaggerated types of human character, from his fondness for portraying which he is sometimes

called "the humorous poet," i.e. the poet who paints men's humours or whims.

His Classic Tragedies are learned, pompous, and stiff.

Masques, Interludes, and other entertainments.

POEMS.—Short miscellaneous pieces,—all beautifully graceful, e.g. "*Drink to me only with thine Eyes.*"

PROSE.—*English Grammar*,—written in the sixteenth century, but not published till after his death. A fragment only remains of the original work. It is founded on the Latin accidence; but the examples of its Rules are taken from British authors.

In it he remarks, with regret, that the plural termination *en* of Verbs was rapidly falling into disuse.

Jonson went on a walking-tour to Scotland in 1619, and stayed some time with Drummond, who made notes of Ben's sayings and doings, and of his own opinion of him, which represents Jonson as intemperate, "passionately kind and angry, vindictive, but, if answered, at himself."

Drummond has been accused of spitefulness in forming this judgment, and of meanness in recording it; but there is no ground for the charge, since the estimate he formed was true, as tried by that of other contemporaries, and the notes were not intended for publication; beyond which, he gives Jonson full credit for what excellencies he possessed.

Thomas Dekker (d. 1638),—*Dramatist and Prose Writer.*—A reckless spendthrift.

Works:—

DRAMAS.—20 in number,—*Fortunatus; or, the Wishing Cap*, is the best.

He displays wit, tenderness, and frequent grace.

PROSE.—*The Gull's Hornbook*,—a satirical description of "life about town."

Thomas Carew (d. 1639),—*Translator.*

Work.—*Translation of Tasso's Jerusalem Delivered*, Books I.-V. More literal, but less spirited, than that of Fairfax.

Joseph Hall (1574-1656), "the English Seneca,"—*Poet, Theologian, and Essayist*.—Bishop of Norwich.

Chief Work of the Period.—*Virgidemiarum*, (= *a harvest of rods*).—Six Books of Poetic Satires, on the follies of society generally, and of literary men in particular.

They are remarkable for lively imagery, wealth of illustration, and elegance and vigour of language.

They also throw great light on the manners of the time.

Rd. Barnfield (b. 1574),—*Poet*.

Works.—Miscellaneous Poems of melodious versification.

His '*As it fell upon a Day*,' which is found in *England's Helicon*, was formerly included in the *Passionate Pilgrim*, and attributed to Shakespeare.

Francis Davison (1575-1618),—*Poet*.—Son of Secretary Davison,—editor of *Poetical Rhapsody*.

Works.—Miscellaneous Poems, mostly sonnets, and versions of the Psalms, some of them contributed to the *Rhapsody*.

The Paradise of Dainty Devices, pub. 1576,—a Poetical Miscellany.

Contributors.—Lord Vaux, (*A Contented Mind*), Edwards, Hunnis, Earl of Oxford.

Edward Fairfax (fl. 1600),—*Translator*.

Chief Work.—*Translation of Tasso's Jerusalem Delivered*,—very spirited, and true to the original.

John Marston (fl. 1600),—*Poet and Dramatist*.

Works:—

POEMS.—*The Scourge of Villainy*,—three Books of Satires on contemporary follies. Very poor.

DRAMATIC.—Tragedies, abounding in bombast and horrors.

England's Helicon, pub. 1600,—a Poetical Miscellany, edited by Lodge.

Contributors.—Breton, Barnfield, Sidney, Raleigh, Lodge, Marlowe, Greene, &c.

The Poetical Rhapsody, pub. 1602,—a Poetical Miscellany, edited by Francis Davison.

Contributors.—Davison, Raleigh, &c.

Alexander Hume (d. 1609),—*Poet*.—Scotch clergyman.
Works.—*Hymns, or Sacred Songs*.

Thomas Kyd (?),—*Dramatist*.

Chief Works.—*Jeronimo*:—and its continuation, *The Spanish Tragedy*. The theme is bloody and horrible; and contains scenes of the highest dramatic power in the exhibition of "grief, despair, revenge, and madness." *Jeronimo* was recast repeatedly, and has been attributed, in turns, to nearly every dramatist of the age.

Henry Chettle (?),—*Dramatist*.

Works.—38 Dramas; only three are extant. The best is *Patient Grissel*, written with Haughton and Dekker.

Golding (?),—*Translator*.—A Scotchman.

Work.—*Translation of Ovid's Metamorphoses*.

Thomas Heywood (?),—*Dramatist*.

Works.—224 Plays, 23 of which remain. The best are *The English Traveller*:—and *The Lancashire Witches*.

Several anonymous dramas of this period have come down to us. The principal of these are

Arden of Feversham;—*The Yorkshire Tragedy*;—*The Merry Devil of Edmonton*.

Many of these were originally attributed to Shakespeare,—a common device of that age to ensure the sale of a work.

HISTORIANS AND POLITICAL WRITERS.

Hitherto our historical literature had remained in the infant stage of poetical legend. During this Period, however, it developed into the true philosophic narrative, the intermediate steps being the Chronicles, in which legends are compiled and admixed with truth, and Biographies and Antiquarian works, in which we find "attention to details and the careful examination of facts—the beginning, of course, of all accurate history."

Robert Fabian (1460-1512),—*Chronicler*.—Alderman and Sheriff of London.

Work.—*The Concordance of Histories*,—a Chronicle of English History, from the fabulous Brutus down to his own time, with special attention to London,

While preserving the legends of the old metrical Chroniclers, he gives most valuable authentic information concerning contemporary matters.

Sir Thos. More (1480-1535),—*Historian, Theologian, and Romance Writer.*—Son of Sir John More, judge of the King's Bench,—born in London,—educated at Oxford,—entered Lincoln's Inn,—elected to Parliament,—chosen Under-Sheriff of London,—became a friend of Erasmus,—by Wolsey's influence, knighted, and made Privy Councillor,—undertook various political missions for Hy. VIII.,—became, successively, Treasurer of the Exchequer, Speaker of the Commons, and Lord Chancellor, (being the first layman to hold that office),—in 1532, foreseeing that the measures of Henry and the Parliament were tending to a breach with Rome, and being a zealous Romanist, resigned the Seals,—in 1534 imprisoned for refusing to take the Oath of Succession,—finally arraigned for treason, (for refusing to acknowledge Henry's supremacy), before the King's Bench,—found guilty, condemned, and executed, behaving on the scaffold with great intrepidity.

More was a rare character,—pious, affable, modest, learned, of strict integrity, a true Christian, and a model husband (to a crabbed wife), and father.

Works.—*Lives of Edward V. and Richard III.*,—appearing first in Harding's Chronicle, then in Hall and Holinshed.

They are among the best specimens of idiomatic secular prose,—being free from obsolete English, pedantry, and vulgarism. They present the earliest attempt to unite narrative with original thought and philosophic reflection.

Devotional and Controversial Treatises. In the latter he abuses his adversaries in the scurrilous style which was the fashion of the age.

Utopia (from the Greek = *no place*), in Latin,—a philosophical romance, describing an ideal republic, where all is perfection,—where the inhabitants work only six hours daily, practise every virtue, have no doctors or lawyers, and *are tolerant in religion* (which More himself was far from being).

Edward Hall (1500-1547),—*Chronicler.*—Judge in the Sheriff's Court, London.

Work.—*The Union of the Two Noble and Illustre Families of York and Lancaster*,—giving a History of England under the Yorkists, Lancastrians, and first two Tudors,—very superior, in reliability, to Fabian's work.

Hall himself brought his History down to 1532; it was continued to Hy. VIII.'s death by Grafton, a printer, who also wrote a digest of English Chronicles, while imprisoned for printing the Proclamation of Lady Jane's accession.

Fabian and Hall both write in strong, idiomatic English.

John Leland (1506-1552),—*Antiquary*.—One of Henry VIII.'s chaplains,—obtained Royal commission to examine records,—then travelled throughout England, making researches,—died insane.

Chief Work.—*The Itinerary*,—giving an account of the places he visited, and a list of English authors.

It is the original and model of all our antiquarian works.

He wrote also several books in Latin on the same subject as the *Itinerary*, which is in English.

John Stowe (1521-1605),—*Chronicler and Antiquary*.—A London tailor,—travelled on foot throughout England, making his researches,—died a licensed beggar.

Chief Works.—*Summary of English Chronicles*:—*Survey of London*, the original of all antiquarian works on the City:—*Flores Historiarum*, or *Annals of England*, which appears to be an abridgment of a great work, *The History of England*, never published.

John Bellenden (d. 1550),—*Translator*.—Lord of Session under Mary of Scots, and a favourite of James V., who made him Archdean of Moray.

Works.—*Translations of Livy*, Books I.-V., (inclusive), and of Boece's Latin *History of Scotland*.

His version of the latter is very free, and contains many additions of his own.

One of the earliest prose-writers of Scotland.

Lord Berners (fl. 1530),—*Translator*.—Ambassador,—Chancellor of the Exchequer,—and Governor of Calais.

Chief Works.—*Translations of Froissart's Chronicles*,

and *Arthur of Little Britain*, a Chivalric romance.

The translation of Froissart is "executed with all the freshness of an original work."

Sir Jas. Melvil (1530-1616),—*Historian*.—Page, and Privy-Councillor to Mary of Scots.

Work.—*Memoirs containing the most Remarkable Affairs of State*, during the reigns of Mary of Scots, James VI. of Scotland, and Elizabeth.

They contain valuable and unique information ; but were not discovered, and printed, till 1683.

Richard Hakluyt (1533-1616),—*Historian*.—Educated at Westminster, and Oxford, where he lectured on cosmography, and corresponded with Mercator,—Chaplain to the Embassy at Paris.

Chief Work.—*The Principal Navigations and Discoveries of the English Nation, made by Sea or over Land, within these last 1500 years*,—in 3 vols.,—the earliest work in the language on maritime discovery.

His papers fell, at his death, into the hands of Purchas, who made good use of them.

Raphael Holinshed (1536-1580),—*Chronicler*.—Steward to a Warwickshire gentleman.

Work.—*Chronicles of British History*, in which he was aided by Stowe,—Wm. Harrison, a clergyman,—and John Hooker, brother of Richard Hooker. Prefixed to the work is a most valuable sketch of the manners and customs, and state of England, in the 16th century.

Shakespeare made large use of Holinshed.

Wm. Camden (1551-1623),—*Historian and Antiquary*.—Head-master of Westminster School,—England's greatest antiquarian,—spent his spare time in making researches, mostly in the North and East.

Chief Work.—*Britannia*,—"the great store-house of all our antiquarian and topographical knowledge."

Sir Henry Spelman (1562-1641),—*Antiquary*.

Chief Works.—*Glossarium Archæologicum*:—*History of the English Councils*,—both in Latin.

North (fl. 1567),—*Translator*.

Work.—*Translation of Plutarch's Lives*,—based on Amyot's French version. Shakespeare is deeply indebted to this work in his Classic Tragedies.

Philemon Holland (fl. 1600),—*Translator*.

Works.—*Translations of Livy; Plutarch's Morals; and Pliny's Natural History*.

These versions are very carefully made, and are, (especially the last), "an inexhaustible mine of linguistic wealth."

Sir Robert Cotton (1570-1631),—*Antiquarian*.

Works.—Aided Camden, and wrote some antiquarian works of no great value,—best known for collecting the valuable MSS., which, increased by his son and grandson, form the celebrated *Cotton Collection* in the British Museum.

Many of the State Papers in this collection were *stolen* by Cotton. This is shewn by the existence of a pardon for *embezzling records*, granted to him, at his own request, by Jas. I.

Geo. Cavendish (d. 1557),—*Historian*,—Gentleman-Usher to Wolsey.

Work.—*Life of Cardinal Wolsey*,—made use of by Shakespeare in *Hy. VIII.*

John Leslie (d. 1596),—*Historian*.—Chronicler of Mary of Scots, and Bishop of Ross.

Work.—*History of Scotland*, from 1436-1461.

Sir John Davis (d. 1605),—*Historian and Geographer*.—Devonshire man,—daring navigator,—in a voyage to discover N.W. passage gave his name to *Davis's Straits*,—killed by Japanese pirates off Malacca.

Work.—*The World's Hydrographical Description*,—giving a history of his own voyages, and intended to prove that all lands are habitable, and attainable by sea, and that there is a N.W. passage.

Sir John Hayward (d. 1627),—*Historian*.

Work of the Period.—*The First Part of the Life and Reign of Henry IV.*,—dedicated to Essex: it offended Elizabeth, and Hayward was imprisoned.

THEOLOGIAN AND BIBLICAL SCHOLARS.

The Theological works of this Period are largely polemical, springing from, and representing, two controversies,—one between the Protestants and Romanists until the establishment of the Reformation; and the other between the Episcopalians and Puritans under Elizabeth.

This era is remarkable for the Translation of the Scriptures by Tyndale and others. Before Elizabeth's reign, 100 editions of various versions of the Scriptures had been published, and, from her accession till 1603, 85 more editions appeared, 60 of which were impressions of the Geneva Bible.

John Fisher (1459-1535),—*Theologian*.—Born in Yorkshire,—Vice-Chancellor of Cambs.,—Confessor to Margaret, Countess of Richmond,—Bishop of Rochester,—an ardent Papist,—imprisoned, 1534, for refusing to take the Oath of Succession acknowledging Henry's divorce and the settlement of the crown on Anne Boleyn's issue, and for countenancing Elizabeth Barton,—while in prison the Pope made him a Cardinal, which so enraged Henry, that he brought him to trial for refusing to acknowledge Henry's supremacy in the Church,—condemned for high treason,—and executed.

Works.—Controversial Treatises, and Sermons.

Hugh Latimer (1470-1555),—*Theologian*.—Native of Leicestershire,—from a zealous Papist became an ardent Protestant, and preached boldly against Romanist errors, before the Reformation,—wrote to Hy. VIII., urging him to allow the people to read the Bible: Henry was pleased at his boldness and gave him a living,—became, by interest of Anne Boleyn and Cromwell, Bishop of Worcester; but resigned the mitre on the passing of the *Six Articles*,—was imprisoned, released, and retired into privacy.

Under Ed. VI. was in great favour, and aided much in the work of the Reformation; but refused to resume his episcopal duties.

When the *Marian Persecution* broke out, he was imprisoned, and afterwards summoned before a Council at Oxford,—tried, with Cranmer and Ridley,—and sentenced to be burned.

He suffered with Ridley, going joyfully to the stake, and exclaiming, "Be of good comfort, Master Ridley.

Play the man ! we shall this day light such a candle, by God's grace, in England, as I trust shall never be put out."

Works.—Sermons,—written in homely, vigorous language, with occasional gleams of quiet humour. They did much to spread the Reformation amongst the working-classes.

Miles Coverdale (1487-1568),—*Biblical Scholar.*—Born in Yorkshire,—educated at Cambs.,—became an Augustinian friar; but speedily adopted Reformed tenets,—Almoner to Queen Catherine (Parr),—made Bishop of Exeter under Ed. VI.,—deprived and imprisoned under Mary,—released,—went abroad, and adopted Puritan views,—returned at Elizabeth's accession,—held a London living till ejected by the *Act of Uniformity*,—died in extreme poverty.

Chief Works.—*Translation of the Bible*,—the first complete translation into English of the whole Scriptures,—the joint work of Coverdale, Tyndale, and Rogers. It was published, perhaps at Hamburg, 1535.

Thos. Cranmer (1490-1556),—*Theologian and Biblical Scholar.*—Born at Aslacton, Notts.,—educated at Cambridge, at Jesus College, of which he became Fellow,—sheltering from the sweating-sickness, (which had broken out at Cambridge), in the house of Mr. Cressy, of Waltham, father of two of his pupils, he made, *in re* the Divorce, that memorable suggestion which introduced him to the notice of Hy. VIII., and proved his stepping-stone to fortune.

In 1533 he was made Archbishop of Canterbury, and pronounced the separation between Henry and Catherine.

He adopted the Protestant faith, but, like his coadjutor Cromwell, made an outward show of conformity to Roman Catholicism, while artfully playing upon Henry's resentment against the Pope, to widen the breach with Rome.

Under Ed. VI., all necessity for disguise being over, he entered ardently into the establishment of Protestantism in England; but all his measures were characterized by prudence and moderation.

To him, chiefly, we owe the Articles, Homilies, and reformed Liturgy.

When Mary ascended the throne, it was not to be expected that the man who had disgraced her mother, out-

raged her religion, and supported Lady Jane Grey, should escape: yet, for awhile, Cranmer remained unmolested.

It being, consequently, reported that he was about to return to the Church of Rome, and had promised to gratify Mary by celebrating Mass in Latin, he published a paper, declaring the Mass to be full of blasphemies, and some of the Popish rites to be inventions of the Devil.

Mary immediately had him arrested, and thrown into prison, on a charge of treason in supporting Lady Jane.

At his trial he pleaded guilty; but was not then executed, Mary having resolved upon a crueller revenge. Her scheme, or that of her counsellors, was to humiliate him, the leader of the Reformation, to the lowest depths of degradation by making him die at the stake, *an apostate*.

He was sent from the Tower to Oxford, and brought before a court composed of the Bishops of Gloucester, Bristol, and London. He here denied the Pope's authority, and that of the Court; but his examiners, instead of proceeding to doctrinal points, and at once condemning him, as they did immediately afterwards in the cases of Ridley and Latimer, remanded him, on pretence of summoning him to appear before the Pope.

Skilful agents were now employed to visit him, and offer him high office if he would recant.

Having seen from his prison Ridley and Latimer led to execution, his moral courage, always small, was completely subdued, and, in a moment of weakness, he subscribed the doctrines of the Papal Supremacy, and the Real Presence.

The desired end being so far gained, orders were sent from Court that he should be made to publish his recantation in church, and then be executed.

Accordingly, he was taken to St. Mary's Church, where, after a sermon, he was required to publicly announce his return to the Romish communion.

Having, however, either learned his enemies' treacherous design, or repenting his weakness, he, to the astonishment of all, re-recanted, bewailing his weakness in allowing the fear of death to make him sign a false declaration, and declaring that the hand which had betrayed his heart should suffer first.

Being led to the stake amidst the grossest insults, he bore all with a serene courage, equal to the occasion. When the fire had seized upon the faggots, he deliberately thrust

his right hand into the flame, holding it there until consumed, and repeatedly exclaiming,—“This hand hath offended.”

The fire then attacked his body, and soon all that was left of the mortal part of the great Reformer, was a handful of ashes, and, as some say, his unconsumed heart.

Character.—Mild, unassuming, and amiable; but sadly and unpardonably deficient in moral courage and Christian charity. His acquiescence in Cromwell's death, his persecutions under Ed. VI., and his recantation, are foul blots on his character, and it is only his death, that, covering him with a halo of heroism, has saved his memory from execration.

Works.—Various Theological Treatises, filling two large volumes.

He was, also, editor of

The Book of Common Prayer;—the first *Book of Homilies* (of which he composed three at least);—the *Articles of Religion*, and *Cranmer's*, or the *Great Bible*, 1539, a revision of Matthew's Bible, with a preface by Cranmer.

From this translation the Prayer-Book Version of the Psalms is taken.

John Hooper (1495-1555),—*Theologian.*—Born in Somersetshire,—educated at Oxford,—embraced Reformed Faith,—boldly denounced Popery, and was obliged to spend several years on the Continent, where he acquired extreme Puritan views,—under Ed. VI. was nominated Bishop of Gloucester,—refused to wear the scarlet portion of his robes; consequently imprisoned in the Fleet; finally agreed to preach before Edward in his full canonicals, on condition that he should not be compelled to use them on every occasion within his diocese,—suffered martyrdom at Gloucester at the commencement of the Marian Persecution.

Works.—Sermons, and Controversial Treatises.

Wm. Tyndale (1500-1536),—*Biblical Scholar and Theologian.*—Native of Gloucestershire,—studied at Oxford; but driven thence for adopting the Reformed Faith,—went to Cambridge, where he took his degree,—became tutor in the family of Sir Jno. Welch, near Bristol, where he boldly expressed his opinions, and attacked the Pope and monks, &c.,—informed against, to the Chancellor of

the diocese, and received a severe reprimand,—thinking himself in danger, took shelter with a friendly merchant in London, where he carried on the work of translating the Scriptures,—hunted thence, found refuge at Antwerp, where he completed his New Testament,—seized, it is said, by Hy. VIII.'s instigation, at Antwerp,—imprisoned two years,—then burned outside the city.

Chief Works.—*Translation of the New Testament*,—from the Vulgate chiefly.

The first printed copy of the New Testament in English.

Edition I. was published at Antwerp, 1526.

Edition II. " " 1534.

Edition III. " in England, 1536.

The first copy of the New Testament printed in England.

He also aided Coverdale and Rogers in the translation of the whole Bible, helping them, in the Old Testament, in the *Pentateuch*, and *Jonah*.

Theological Treatises,—the principal being *The Wicked Mammon*; and *The True Obedience of a Christian Man*. They are fine specimens of vigorous English.

Nicholas Ridley (1500-1555),—*Theologian*.—Born in Northumberland,—educated at Cambridge,—travelled for three years on the Continent, and there gained acquaintance with the Reformed doctrines, which he afterwards adopted,—became, successively, Public Orator, Royal Chaplain, Bishop of Rochester, and Bishop of London,—under Ed. VI. took prominent part in promoting the Reformation, aided greatly in compiling the Liturgy and the Articles, and incited the King to found Christ's, St. Thomas's, and St. Bartholomew's Hospitals,—became a marked man, at Mary's accession, on account of his concurring in the proclamation of Lady Jane,—when the Marian Persecution broke out, he was imprisoned,—examined at Oxford by the Commission that tried Cranmer and Latimer,—and sentenced to be burned. He suffered undauntedly, with Latimer.

Works.—Sermons, and Theological Treaties.

He held very transcendental views on the subject of the Real Presence.

Ridley possessed the clearest and strongest intellect of all the English Reformers.

Reginald de la Pole (1500-1558),—*Controversial Theologian*.—Second son of the Countess of Salisbury,—educated at Oxford,—opposed Henry *in re* the Divorce, and driven from Court by the King,—for condemning the separation of England from Rome, was deprived of his preferments, and attainted,—fled to Italy,—well received by the Pope, and employed in fomenting rebellion in England, and hostility to Henry on the Continent,—made Papal Nuncio,—nominated President of the Council of Trent,—and offered the Popedom on the death of Paul III.,—under Mary, returned to England as Papal Legate,—reconciled the country to Rome,—succeeded Cranmer as Archbishop of Canterbury, and became Chancellor of both Universities,—died the same day as Mary.

Character.—Benign and humane: though a bigoted Romanist he would have no hand in the Marian Persecution, and protested earnestly against it.

Work.—*De Unitate Ecclesiastica*,—written in condemnation of the separation of England from the Romish Church.

Richard Cox (1500-1581),—*Theologian, and Biblical Scholar*.—Born in Bucks.,—educated at Oxford,—embraced Reformed faith,—consequently imprisoned, but released by Cranmer's influence,—Master of Eton,—tutor to Ed. VI., under whom he became, successively, Privy-Councillor, King's Almoner, Dean of Westminster, and Chancellor of Oxford,—under Mary, resided abroad,—Elizabeth made him Bishop of Ely.

Works.—Contributed Gospels, Acts, and Epistle to Romans to *The Bishop's Bible*, and had share in compiling Elizabeth's Liturgy.
Controversial Treatises.

Matthew Parker (1504-1575),—*Biblical Scholar, Theologian, and Historian*.—Born at Norwich,—educated at Cambridge,—entered Church, and espoused Reformed doctrines,—successively, Chaplain to Anne Boleyn, and Hy. VIII., and Master of Corpus Christi, Cambridge,—deprived of all preferments by Mary, on the ground of his being married, but allowed to live, unmolested, in retirement,—made Archbishop of Canterbury by Elizabeth.

Chief Works.—Edited

1. Several old English historians.
2. *Parker's*, or *The Bishop's Bible*,—prepared by 15 translators, mostly bishops, under Parker's presidency,—pub. 1568.
De Antiquitate Britannicæ Ecclesiæ,—a joint-stock production, in which Parker had the lion's share.

John Knox (1505-1572),—*Theologian, Historian, and Political Writer*.—Born in East Lothian,—educated at St. Andrew's for the Romish Church,—at 38 was converted to Protestantism, and became its zealous advocate and pioneer,—joined the murderers of Beaton, (whose death he rejoiced at as favourable to the Reformation), in St. Andrew's Castle; he there first assumed the office of Protestant minister,—the Castle being taken by the French, he, with the rest, was taken to France, and sent to the galleys,—after 19 months, released by influence of Ed. VI.,—came to England,—licensed to preach first at Berwick, then at Newcastle,—chaplain to Ed. VI., who offered him a London living, which he refused, owing to his dislike to the English Liturgy,—on Mary's accession, went to Geneva, then to Frankfort, where he was the leader of the party opposed to the Liturgy; but was, with his party, compelled to leave,—returned to Geneva, and soon after to Scotland, 1555, where his influence became paramount with the Lords of the Congregation, and they, by his advice, formally seceded from the Romish Church,—returned to Geneva,—finally came back to Scotland, 1559, and commenced that fiery Crusade that ended in the entire overthrow of the power of the Pope in Scotland.

He died worn out by incessant struggles,—at his grave Regent Morton exclaimed, "There lies one who never feared the face of man."

Knox, like Luther, and all other great iconoclasts, was a man of stern, unbending will, and ferocious temper. It is almost certain that he approved of the execution of heretics. His brutal treatment of Mary admits of palliation.

Chief Works :—

THEOLOGICAL.—*Book of Common Order*,—a substitute for the Liturgy.

POLITICAL.—*First Blast of the Trumpet against the Monstrous Regiment, (= rule), of Women*,—

written against the Queen-Regent, and Mary of Scots.

HISTORICAL.—*History of the Reformation of Religion within the Realm of Scotland.*

Dr. Becon (1511-1570),—*Theologian.*—Cranmer's Chaplain.

Works.—Various Theological Treatises,—mostly on the side of the Reformation.

John Foxe, "the Martyrologist," (1516-1587),—*Theologian, and Historian.*—Born at Boston,—educated at Oxford, where he gained a fellowship,—expelled for becoming Protestant,—tutor in the Duchess of Richmond's family, to educate the children of the imprisoned Surrey,—under Ed. VI., restored to his fellowship,—press-corrector at Basle, under Mary,—received into favour on Elizabeth's accession, and might have obtained preferment, but refused subscription to the *Act of Uniformity*,—accepted, however, a prebendal stall at Salisbury, and spent his last days in the Duke of Norfolk's family. A man of singular gentleness, modesty, honour, and learning.

Chief Works:—

THEOLOGICAL.—Various Treatises,—mostly controversial.

HISTORICAL.—*Acts and Monuments of the Church,*—giving an account of the troubles wrought and practised by Romish prelates, specially in this Realm of England, for the last 500 years,—commonly called, "*Foxe's Book of Martyrs.*"

It occupied eleven years in composition, and was published, 1563.

It is a most valuable and unique record of our "noble army of martyrs," being thoroughly trustworthy.

The style is simple and clear; but the narrative itself is often coarse and repulsive. This, however, is unavoidable from the subject.

It greatly aided the cause of the Reformation.

Edmund Grindal (1519-1583),—*Theologian.*—Born in Cumberland,—educated at Cambridge,—successively, Master of Pembroke Hall, Bishop of London, Bishop of

York, and Primate,—sequestered for five years, by Elizabeth, for refusing to put down "*prophesyings*," i.e. public meetings of the clergy for the purpose of examining and expounding the Scriptures,—restored to his office, but was never a favourite with Elizabeth, being too honest and out-spoken for a courtier. He founded St. Bees College.

Works.—Various Theological Treatises.

Assisted Foxe in his *Acts and Monuments*.

John Jewell (1522-1571),—Theologian.—Born in Devonshire,—educated at Oxford,—adopted the Reformed faith,—under Ed. VI., became Rector of Sunningwell, Berks.,—under Mary, lived on the Continent,—returned at Elizabeth's accession, and was made Bishop of Salisbury.

Chief Works.—*Apology for the Church of England*,—in Latin,—learned, spirited, terse,—is said to have aided the Reformation more than any other work.

Defence of the Apology,—confined to the *Apology* itself.

Jewell's opponent was a Jesuit, named Harding.

John Whitgift (1530-1604),—Theologian.—Born in Lincolnshire,—educated at Cambridge,—under Elizabeth, became, successively, Margaret's Professor of Divinity, Master of Pembroke Hall, Master of Trinity, Regius Professor of Divinity, Queen's Chaplain, Vice-Chancellor of Cambridge, Bishop of Worcester, and, finally, Primate,—an intolerant Conformist, he used both pen and power, with effect, against the Puritans, putting in force, and creating, penal laws against them, and being the means of establishing the Court of High Commission,—took part in Hampton Court Conference.

Chief Work.—Answer to Cartwright's *Admonition of the Parliament*.

Thomas Cartwright (1535-1603),—Theologian.—Margaret's Professor of Divinity at Cambridge,—expelled thence for his Nonconformist principles,—established the first regularly-constituted Nonconformist Church in England,—imprisoned for three years by Court of High Commission,—a very learned man.

Chief Works.—*Admonition of the Parliament*:—*Body of Divinity*:—*Commentaries on Proverbs, and the New Testament*.

Thomas Bilson (1536-1616),—Theologian.—Successively Bishop of Worcester, and Winchester,—took prominent part in Hampton Court Conference.

Works.—Various Theological Treatises,—took part in the Translation of the Authorized Version of the Scriptures.

Robert Brown (1540-1630),—Theologian.—Founder of the *Brownists*, the originals of the Independents,—relative of Burleigh,—educated at Oxford,—soon became notorious for his vehement preaching against the Anglican Church,—went to Holland to establish a separate congregation,—failed,—returned to England,—became rector of a church, Northamptonshire,—did not officiate; but led a lazy life,—imprisoned at Northampton for assaulting a constable, and there died,—had been imprisoned 30 times!

Chief Work.—*Treatise of Reformation without tarrying for any.*

Richard Hooker (1554-1600),—Theologian.—Born at Exeter,—sent, by Bishop Jewell's aid, to Oxford,—became Fellow of Corpus Christi,—tutor to son of Bishop Sandys, and to Cranmer's grand-nephew,—married Joan Churchman, a shrew,—appointed Master of the Temple, where he came into collision with Travers, the Afternoon Lecturer, a divine of the Genevan school,—Whitgift suspended Travers; but Hooker resigned his office, to retire into the country for the composition of his great work,—received, first, the living of Boscomb, Wilts., and then that of Bishop's Bourne, Kent, in the enjoyment of which small preferment he died.

Works.—*On the Laws of Ecclesiastical Polity*,—in eight books; four were published 1594,—the fifth, 1597,—the last three, 1647.

The object of the work is "to investigate and define the fundamental laws upon which is founded the right of the Church to the obedience of its members, and the duty of the members to pay obedience to the Church."

At the same time he has given us a masterly "ethical disquisition on law in general."

With regard to Church polity, he holds that no indispensable system is laid down in Scripture,—that, consequently, various forms of Church government and ritual are lawful,—that the

ceremonies of various churches are lawful, and that no one religious communion can claim to possess the only Scriptural form.

Sermons,—the best being those on *Justification by Faith, and Perpetuity of Faith in God's Elect*.

Hooker's *Polity* is one of the grandest monuments of English prose. It is marked by close reasoning, massive scholarship, gorgeous imagery, loftiness of diction, and melody of language; but his sentences are often tediously long and involved.

Books VI., VII., and VIII., in their present form, are not entirely Hooker's work. He doubtless left these three Books in a completed state; but the perfect MS. mysteriously disappeared. His widow declared to Whitgift that the Rev. Mr. Charke, Hooker's son-in-law, and another clergyman, having obtained leave from her to inspect her husband's papers, "burned and tore many of them, assuring her that they were writings not fit to be seen." Probably the last part of the *Polity* thus suffered.

The rough draft, however, of these three Books was found, and shaped into its present form by Dr. John Spencer, Hooker's intimate friend, and who knew perfectly the intentions of the author.

John Rogers (d. 1555),—*Biblical Scholar*.—Educated at Cambridge,—became Chaplain to the English factory at Antwerp,—under Ed. VI., became Prebend of St. Paul's,—the "Protomartyr" of the Marian Persecution.

Works.—Assisted Tyndale and Coverdale in translating the whole Bible,—edited *Matthew's Bible*, pub. 1537,—is merely a second edition of Coverdale's Bible; but contains marginal notes on the corruptions of Popery.

Versions of the Bible, (not hitherto mentioned).

Taverner's Bible,—pub. 1539,—a nearly new translation, by Taverner, a London scholar.

The Geneva Bible,—published in Mary's reign,—based on Tyndale and Coverdale's Version,—made at Geneva by Gilby, and Sampson (Prebend of St. Paul's), and Whittingham, (Fellow of Oxford, and brother-in-law of Calvin).

MISCELLANEOUS WRITERS.

Wm. Caxton (1410-1491),—*Translator and Original Author.*—Born in Kent,—apprenticed to a London mercer,—settled in the Netherlands as agent,—became Governor of the Merchant Adventurers Company,—entered suite of Margaret of Burgundy,—in Flanders learned the art of printing, and began to practise it,—1476 set up the first English press in Westminster Abbey, and in 1477 published *Dictes and Noble Sayings of the Phylosophers*, the first book published in England.

He translated, or wrote, and printed over 60 works.

Chief Works of this Period.—*The Booke of Taylles of Armes*, translated from Latin.

Golden Legende.

The Booke of Eneydos,—a compilation from the French.

Caxton's style is clear and good; but, in consequence of his living abroad, stuffed with French words and phrases.

John Colet (1466-1519),—*Grammarian.*—Oxford man,—studied on Continent,—Dean of St. Paul's,—friend of Erasmus, and other learned men,—did much for classic literature in England.

Chief Work.—*Latin Grammar*,—the best yet published.

Sir John Cheke (1514-1557),—*Translator and Pamphleteer.*—Professor of Greek at Cambridge,—tutor to Ed. VI.,—did much to quicken the study of Greek,—an ardent advocate for a pure Saxon style of writing English.

Chief Works.—*Translation of St. Matthew*:—*The Hurt of Sedition*,—a political Pamphlet.

Roger Ascham (1515-1568).—A fine classic, who showed his knowledge of Latin and Greek by "transferring the firmness and precision of ancient writers to his own tongue,"—University Orator at Cambridge,—tutor to Lady Jane and to Elizabeth, who made him her Latin Secretary, and greatly bewailed his loss.

Work.—*The Schoolmaster*, (posthumous),—containing sound views on education, particularly on the study of language.

The work condemns the severity of that age, and was undertaken in consequence of a conversation at a dinner given by Burleigh. Cecil told his guests that several Etonians had run

away in consequence of their master's harsh discipline : opinions were divided as to the advisability of flogging. Ascham spoke warmly against it, and was, afterwards, induced by Sackville to record his sentiments on the subject of education, which formed the above treatise. *Toxophilus*,—an argument in favour of studying the use of the bow.

His works are in pure, strong English.

Sir Thos. Elyot (d. 1530).—Eminent physician,—employed by Hy. VIII. on embassies.

Works.—*The Castle of Health*,—containing wise rules for diet and exercise.

The Governor,—a Treatise on Education,—opposed to severity.

English and Latin Dictionary, the earliest in England.

Sir Christopher Hatton (d. 1591).—*Jurist*.—Born in Northamptonshire,—educated at Oxford,—studied law in the Inner Temple,—resigned the bar for the Court, his elegant dancing having gained Elizabeth's favour,—made Lord Chancellor, and K.G., in 1587,—though deficient in legal knowledge, filled his office with credit, owing to his keen and solid intellect, and conscientious toil.

He displayed great lenity to the Papists, and was a bitter enemy of the Puritans.

After being for many years Elizabeth's chief favourite, his star waned, and it is said that he died broken-hearted, in consequence of the Queen demanding of him a debt, which he could not pay.

Work.—*A Treatise concerning Statutes*.

Sir Wm. Cecil, Lord Burleigh (1520-1598).—*Moralist*.—Born in Lincolnshire,—son of Master of the Robes to Hy. VIII.,—educated at Cambridge,—studied law at Gray's Inn,—entered Henry's service.

Under Ed. VI. became Master of Requests, and Secretary of State.

He avoided, by his consummate prudence, being drawn into the movement in favour of Lady Jane, and, though a Protestant, and opposing in the Commons the Roman Catholic measures introduced under Mary, escaped persecution, though deprived of office.

He was Elizabeth's guide during the trying period of her sister's reign, and, on her accession, was restored to the Secretaryship.

In 1572 he was created Lord Burleigh, and made Lord High Treasurer.

Character.—Sagacious, cautious, and a perfect master of the art of intriguing diplomacy. His policy was, on the whole, sound, consistent, and well-matured. To his wise guidance Elizabeth owed much of the security and prosperity of her reign.

Work.—*Precepts, or Directions for the well-Ordering and Carriage of a Man's Life*,—addressed to his son Robert.

Albericus Gentilis (1549-1611),—*Jurist.*—Native of Italy, whence he was driven for his Protestantism,—Professor of Civil Law at Oxford.

Work.—*On the Laws of War and Peace*,—the earliest treatise on the subject.

Thomas Wylson (d. 1581),—*Translator and Critic.*—A Cambridge man.

Works.—*Translation of the Orations of Demosthenes*,—executed at Elizabeth's request.

System of Rhetoric and Logic,—severely criticising Euphuism, and over-classicality of style.

Sir Ed. Coke (1552-1632),—*Jurist.*—Born in Norfolk,—educated at Cambridge,—entered Inner Temple,—called to Bar, and rapidly rose,—became Solicitor-General, Reader of the Inner Temple, M.P., and Attorney-General, taking part in most of the public trials for sedition and treason, and abusing and brow-beating his opponents, (e.g. Raleigh, Essex, and Bacon),—after the Gunpowder Plot, became Chief Justice of the Common Pleas, and then of King's Bench,—disgraced,—restored,—again disgraced, and imprisoned,—sat in Charles I.'s first and second Parliaments, and took leading part in drawing up the *Bill of Rights*,—spent his last three years in retirement,—most unfortunate and unhappy in his second marriage with the widow of Sir Wm. Hatton, daughter of Burleigh. He wedded her for connection and wealth,—they were more than once separated, and died apart. He forced his

daughter into a wretched union with Sir John Villiers, elder brother of Buckingham. These domestic troubles arose from his desire to play the magistrate in his own home. He was "a mere lawyer," with no appreciation of literature.

Works.—*Law Reports*:—*First, Second, Third, and Fourth Institutes* (the first being termed *Coke upon Littleton*):—*Treatises on Copyholds and Fines*.

Florio (fl. 1600),—*Translator*.

Work.—*Translation of Montaigne*.

Francis Bacon, Viscount St. Albans, (1561-1626),—*Philosopher, Historian, Essayist, and Jurist.*—Born in London,—son of Sir Nicholas Bacon, Elizabeth's Lord Keeper, and nephew of Cecil, Lord Burleigh,—educated at Cambridge, where he conceived the utmost contempt for Aristotle's philosophy as being unfruitful of practical results,—travelled,—returned, and studied law,—entered Parliament and became a popular speaker,—was kept from preferment, under Elizabeth, owing to the adverse influence of the Cecils, who professed to believe that he was too much of the student and theorist to be useful in office,—at James's accession rose rapidly,—married an Alderman's daughter, with a fortune,—and became, successively, Solicitor-General, Attorney-General, Lord Chancellor and Baron Verulam, and Viscount St. Albans,—held the Chancellorship about three years, and, then, in 1621, was impeached, chiefly through the influence of his rival Coke, for allowing Buckingham to influence his decisions, and for receiving bribes,—pleaded guilty to 23 charges,—was degraded, debarred from ever again holding any crown office, fined £40,000, and sentenced to imprisonment during James's pleasure. James remitted the fine and imprisonment at once, and, shortly before Bacon's death, withdrew the prohibition from holding office. The Ex-Chancellor spent his last years in literary and scientific pursuits, and died in consequence of a fever resulting from his stuffing a fowl with snow to discover whether that substance would prove an equally effectual preservative with salt.

Works of this Period:—*Essays, or Counsels Civil and Moral*,—ten published in 1597,—more added

in 1612,—the final edition, containing 58, appearing 1625.

They are ungraceful and broken in style; but are unsurpassed for condensed learning, wisdom, and wit.

Bacon's English style is marked by a marvellous combination of profound thought, brilliant fancy, (always, however, subordinate to his judgment), and condensation.

Maxims and Elements of the Common Law
(posthumous).

All his other productions are out of the Period.

Sir Henry Savile (?),—*Translator*.—One of the most learned Englishmen of Elizabeth's reign.

Work.—*Translation* of part of *Tacitus*, with Notes.

Webbe (?),—*Critic*.

Work.—*A Discourse of English Poetry*,—discusses the adaptibility of Latin metres to English poetry.

Geo. Puttenham (?),—*Critic*.

Work.—*The Art of English Poetry*,—considered by Hallam to be the first harmonious prose. Puttenham mentions Sidney, Spenser, Raleigh, and Gascoigne in high terms.

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Cranmer.	Knox.	Donne.
Tyndale.	Foxe.	Hooker.

Miscellaneous.

More.	Elyot.	Bacon.
Cheke.	North.	Wotton.
Ascham.	Holland.	Jonson.

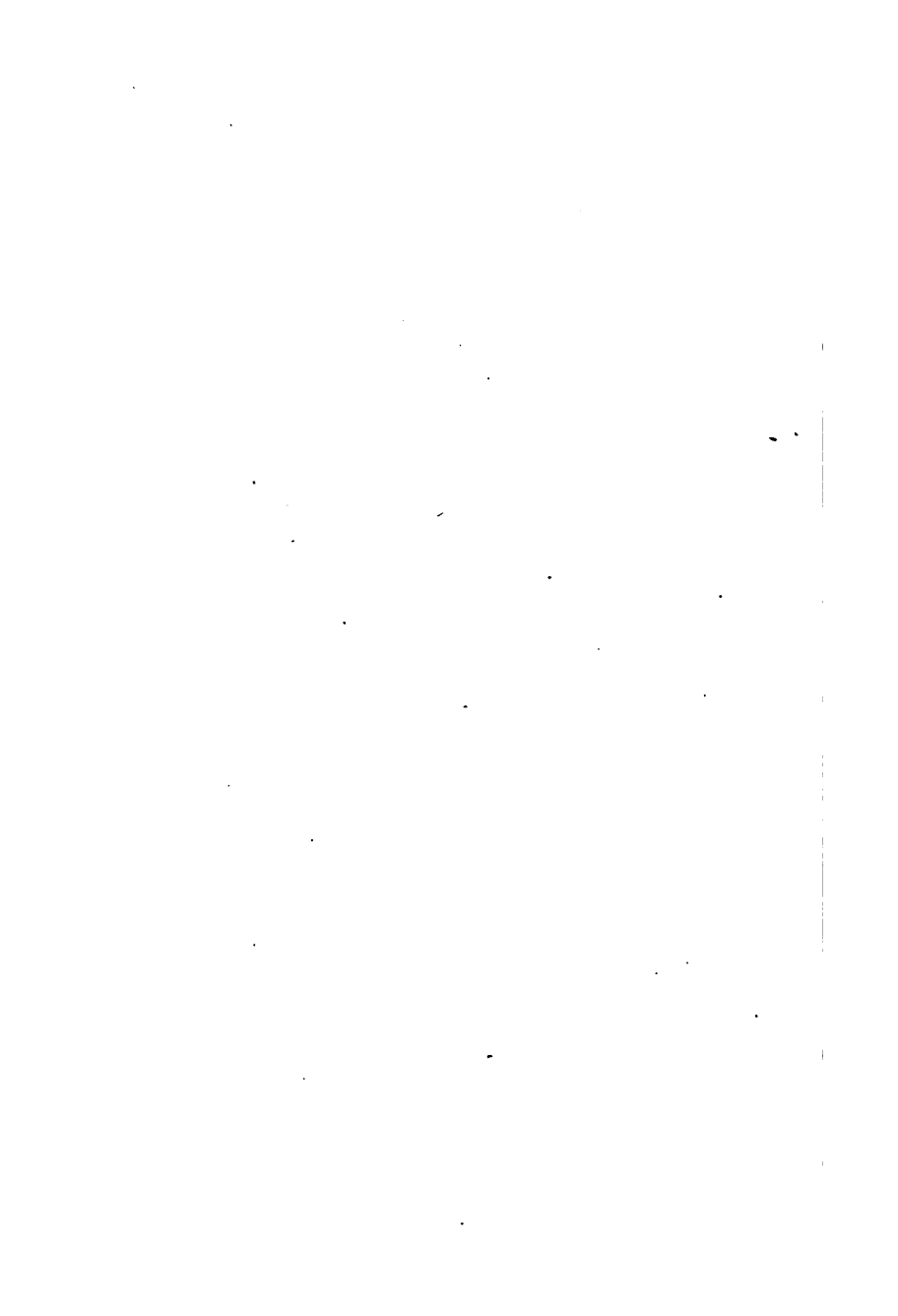
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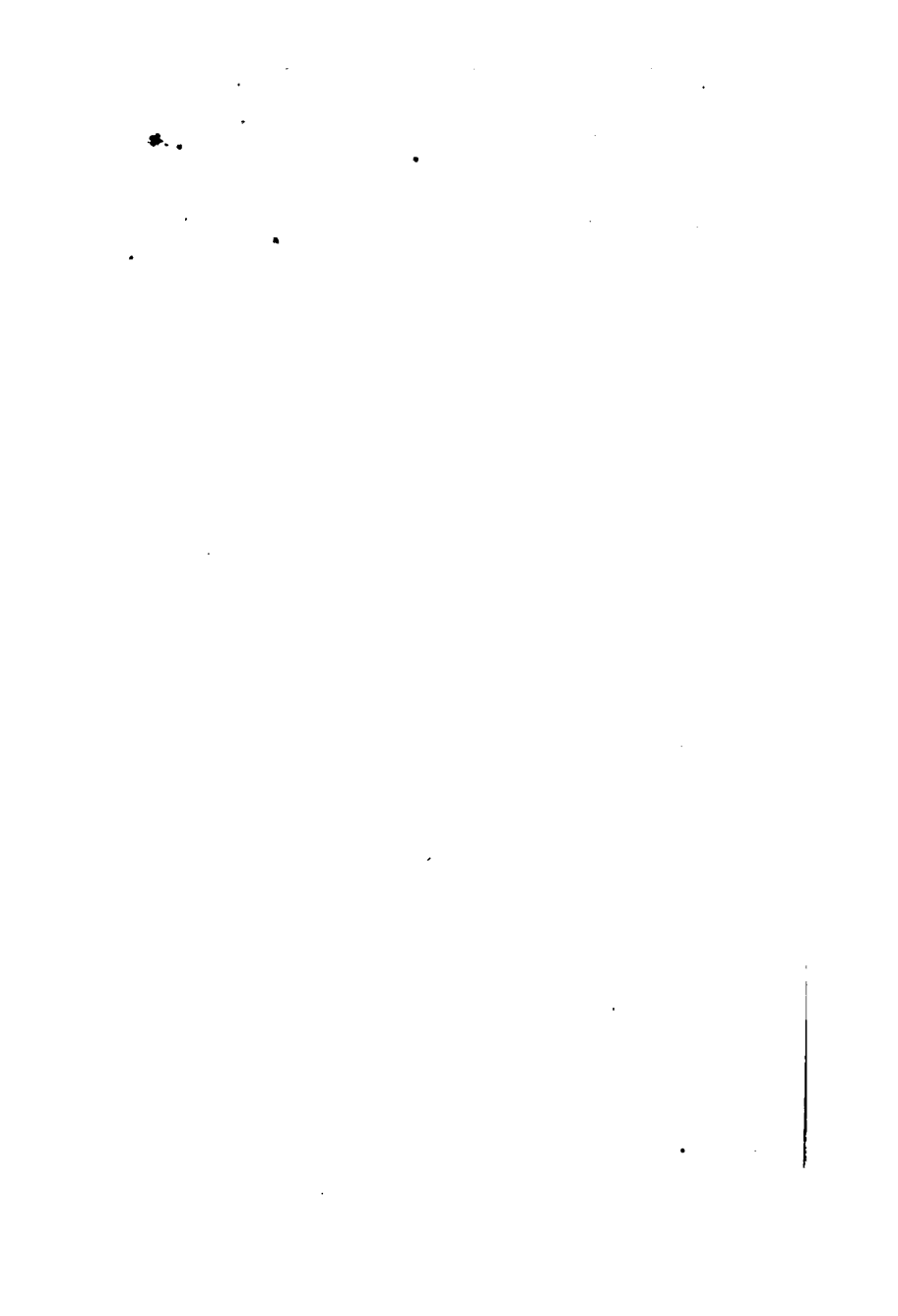
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